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ABSTRACT

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PARIS, FRANCE
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Brochure 70 / *Booklet 70*

DIVISION DE LA FORMATION ET DE LA RECHERCHE
DIVISION OF EDUCATION AND RESEARCH

SECTION DE LA FORMATION ET DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT
SECTION ON EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Session 141 — mercredi 23 août / *Wednesday 23 August* — 15:15 - 17:45

L'Importance d'une formation de base en marketing pour les bibliothécaires-documentalistes *(52-TRAIN-3-F)*	Réjean SAVARD, Professeur agrégé, EBSI, Université de Montréal, Québec, Canada
Information Management Education : Some Interdisciplinary Approaches *(50-TRAIN-1-E)*	Marianne BROADBENT, Head, Department of Information Services, Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology, Melbourne, Australia
Educational Implications of Information Development *(51-TRAIN-2-E)*	Jesus LAU, Ph. D., Instituto Tecnologico de Durango, Durango, Dgo, Mexico

TABLE RONDE D'HISTOIRE DES BIBLIOTHÈQUES
ROUND TABLE ON LIBRARY HISTORY

Session 137 — mercredi 23 août / *Wednesday 23 August* — 12:30 - 15:00

The International Role of the Library of Congress : a Brief History *(14-LIBHI-1-E)*	John Y. COLE, The Center for the Book, Library of Congress, Washington D.C., USA
The Use of Anglo-French Comparisons by the Promoters of the 1850 Public Libraries Act *(15-LIBHI-2-E)*	Paul STURGES, Department of Library and Information Studies, Loughborough University, Loughborough, UK

TABLE RONDE SUR LA RECHERCHE SUR LA LECTURE
ROUND TABLE ON RESEARCH IN READING

Session 122 — mardi 22 août / *Tuesday 22 August* — 14:30 - 17:00

Buch- und Leseforschung, ein Dschungel begrifflicher Verwirrungen *(35-READ-2-G)*	Konrad H. TECKENTRUP, Independent Research Consultant, Engen-Hegau, FRG
Sociologie de la lecture et des usages en bibliothèque : quelques recherches récentes en France *(16-READ-1-F)*	Martine POULAIN, Conservateur, Sociologue, Responsable du Service des études et de la recherche, Bibliothèque Publique d'Information, Paris, France

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TABLE RONDE SUR LA FORMATION PROFESSIONNELLE CONTINUE
ROUND TABLE ON CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

Session 106 — mardi 22 août / *Tuesday 22 August* — 08:00 - 10:30

Internationales Seminar zur Problematik der Fortbildung der Bibliothekmitarbeiter, Martin, CSSR, Oktober 1988 : ein Bericht *(3-RTCPE-1-G)*	Horst HOGH, Martin, CSSR
Mastering Access : The Birmingham MSc information Management *(5-RTCPE-2-E)*	Trevor HAYWOOD, Dean of Faculty, Faculty of Computing and Information Studies, Birmingham Polytechnic, Perry Barr, Birmingham, UK Sandi KIRKHAM, Course Director, Faculty of Computing and Information Studies, Birmingham Polytechnic, Perry Barr, Birmingham, UK

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L'importance d'une formation de base en marketing pour les bibliothécaires-documentalistes

Réjean SAVARD, *Professeur agrégé, EBSI, Université de Montréal, Canada*

ABSTRACT

Recent developments in marketing for non-profit organizations are opening new doors for a better transfer of information.

Marketing may be defined as a philosophy of management where one has to listen to one's clienteles (users and non-users), to adapt one's products and services to detected needs, and to communicate with the clienteles to let them know that one is there. It is therefore a concept which is much larger and more complex than what people generally think it is.

From this philosophy of management stem different techniques which can lead to important changes in the organization. These changes will allow the library to be more effective in the exchange process with its clienteles.

We shall therefore have to count on marketing in the future and library educators have to make sure that librarians acquire marketing notions.

This raises a certain number of questions that we shall try to answer. Is this marketing philosophy applicable to all countries whatever their development level or their socio-economic status ? What is the situation of marketing education in library and information schools in Europe, in Africa, and especially in North America ? Should marketing education be taken at the library school or at the management school ? Does marketing education have to be a core topic ? Should we include the marketing notions in the usual management course or have it taught separately ? Does it have a link with courses on user studies ? What should be the basic content of a marketing course for librarians ?

Sans vouloir amener ici la série de définitions traditionnelles qui sied généralement à une telle communication, il serait bon tout de même de rappeler que le concept moderne de marketing, popularisé surtout après la deuxième guerre mondiale, dépasse largement la notion de publicité, définition à laquelle s'en tient bien souvent le profane. Guy Serraf dans son *Dictionnaire méthodologique du marketing* a bien cerné toute la quintessence de ce concept : "Système cohérent de trois axes solidaires : la recherche, la stratégie et l'action (...). Il s'agit de détecter, de précéder, de joindre et de suivre les clientèles, et de maîtriser les transformations et les développements du marché"[1]. Beaucoup plus que la simple publicité donc, le marketing est une véritable philosophie de gestion, doublée d'une panoplie d'outils et de techniques permettant au gestionnaire de rationaliser et de maximiser l'échange entre une organisation et ses clientèles. Or cet échange est présent partout, dans le contexte commercial, comme dans le contexte public (Figure 1).

La question de savoir si le marketing s'applique ou non aux bibliothèques et aux services d'information ne se pose donc pas. Déjà il y a dix ans, Paul Wasserman dont la réputation n'est plus à faire en matière de gestion des bibliothèques et des services d'information, écrivait : "Now, to the extent that information science has come to perceive the client rather than collection zeal as the central analytical focus, the marketing framework takes on dramatically heightened significance"[2]. Depuis, l'abondance des publications sur le sujet dans les revues professionnelles traduit éloquemment la préoccupation sans cesse grandissante des bibliothécaires et documentalistes pour le marketing.

Quant à l'application du marketing aux différents contextes sociaux, économiques ou politiques, qu'il me soit permis de citer deux exemples qui indiquent à quel point l'approche marketing est maintenant universelle : d'abord Philip Kotler, le spécialiste incontesté du marketing qui vient de publier à Moscou une traduction en russe de son manuel *Principles of marketing management*[3], et puis la publication également assez récente d'un ouvrage sur l'application du marketing dans les pays en voie de développement[4].

Mais l'objectif de cette communication est d'analyser l'enseignement du marketing dans les écoles de bibliothéconomie et de sciences de l'information. De prime abord, l'enseignement du marketing semble déjà assez bien implanté dans la formation des bibliothécaires et documentalistes, du moins en ce qui a trait aux pays francophones et aux pays anglophones, que nous connaissons mieux.

Pour ce qui est des pays francophones, nous avons eu le plaisir depuis quelques années déjà, de donner des formations en marketing dans plusieurs écoles. Soulignons notamment l'Ecole nationale supérieure des bibliothèques en France et l'Ecole des bibliothécaires de Genève en Suisse, où les programmes des cours incluent officiellement une formation marketing depuis environ trois ans. Dans le cadre d'échanges, nous avons aussi pu donner des séminaires à l'Ecole des bibliothécaires, archivistes et documentalistes de Dakar au Sénégal, ainsi qu'à l'Ecole des sciences de l'information de Rabat au Maroc. Cette modeste expérience nous a permis de constater que l'approche marketing est non seulement désirée par les responsables de formation, mais qu'elle est également applicable dans tous les contextes, moyennant certaines adaptations dans des cas particuliers évidemment.

Quant aux écoles anglophones, les cours de marketing des bibliothèques et des services d'information y semblent assez répandus. En Amérique du Nord notamment, nous avons effectué une analyse sommaire des programmes de quarante-neuf écoles de formation, et nous avons pu constater que onze écoles (22,5 %) avaient au programme un cours portant sur le marketing ou sur un sujet connexe (relations publiques, publicité, etc.), sans compter les autres cours (par ex., gestion) où des leçons peuvent aussi être données sur le marketing. Deux manuels de marketing des bibliothèques et des services d'information ont aussi été publiés aux Etats-Unis ces dernières années, ce qui indique encore une fois la vigueur de cet enseignement dans les écoles anglophones[5]. Quant à l'Angleterre, nous savons qu'il existe déjà des cours de marketing des bibliothèques et services d'information, notamment à Sheffield. Il semble aussi qu'en Australie ce sujet soit assez courant : Mari Davis affirme que les trois quarts des écoles offrent un cours ou une partie de cours sur le marketing[6].

Plusieurs se demandent également si les cours de marketing doivent être offerts à l'école de bibliothéconomie, ou si les intéressés ne doivent pas plutôt se tourner vers les écoles de gestion pour obtenir cette formation. Le fait est que dans la plupart des écoles de gestion, le marketing est surtout enseigné en fonction des "produits". Or le marketing des bibliothèques et des services d'information est avant tout un marketing de "services", c'est-à-dire un marketing de produits intangibles, ce qui nécessite une approche fort différente. Tous les spécialistes s'accordent aujourd'hui pour affirmer que le marketing des services a ses propres règles et ses propres difficultés : on ne fait pas le marketing de l'assurance comme on fait le marketing des pots de yogourts. L'application des enseignements reçus dans un contexte "produits" peut donc s'avérer difficile dans un contexte "services". De plus, à la particularité des organismes de service s'ajoute celle des organismes à but non-lucratif : la plupart des bibliothécaires et documentalistes opèrent dans un tel contexte, où les notions de prix et de valeur sont tout à fait différentes du contexte commercial. Dans un cours spécialisé, conçu spécialement pour des bibliothécaires et documentalistes, toutes ces notions peuvent être discutées adéquatement. C'est pourquoi nous recommandons fortement aux écoles d'inscrire à leur programme leur propre cours de marketing.

C'est d'ailleurs la solution qui est proposée dans deux publications de l'UNESCO : *A modular curriculum in information studies* et les *Principes directeurs pour l'enseignement du marketing aux bibliothécaires documentalistes et archivistes*[7]. Il semble que le marketing des bibliothèques et des services soit assez particulier pour justifier des cours spéciaux sur ce sujet dans les programmes de formation initiale. On recommande même dans ces deux publications de rendre l'apprentissage des notions de marketing *obligatoire pour tous les étudiants* des écoles de formation en bibliothéconomie et sciences de l'information. Certaines écoles, notamment l'Ecole nationale supérieure des bibliothèques en France, ont déjà mis en pratique cette recommandation.

La question de savoir si ces notions obligatoires de marketing doivent être traitées dans un cours à part est secondaire. Il est bien entendu préférable d'avoir au programme un cours de marketing autonome, mais le marketing peut également être enseigné soit dans le cours obligatoire de management, soit dans un cours portant sur les usagers et les clientèles.

L'origine des cours de marketing dans les programmes de

sciences de l'information semble d'ailleurs provenir d'une préoccupation accrue des écoles de formation ces dernières années, pour les usagers et non-usagers. C'est le cas de l'Ecole de bibliothéconomie et des sciences de l'information de l'Université de Montréal où le programme a été entièrement révisé en 1979, avec comme pivot central la notion d'usager : tout le programme avait été pensé en fonction de l'usager, avec un cours obligatoire en première année, et une spécialisation ou concentration à option sur ce même sujet en deuxième. Au début, les cours portant sur l'usager étaient mal acceptés par les étudiants. En fait, la notion d'usager y était abordée d'une manière trop théorique, en utilisant une approche "sociologique". Les étudiants, préoccupés par des notions plus terre-à-terre (indexation, catalogage, développement des collections, informatique documentaire, etc.), ne voyaient pas l'intérêt de ces cours. De plus, la spécialisation proposée en deuxième année n'était pas souvent retenue par les étudiants. L'approche marketing fut alors introduite, ce qui eut pour effet d'accroître radicalement l'intérêt des étudiants. Le marketing a en effet l'avantage de lier la notion d'usager et d'utilisation de la bibliothèque et du système d'information au processus de gestion. Présentées dans une approche marketing, les notions d'usager, de clientèle, d'étude de milieu, etc., sont alors beaucoup plus significatives pour les étudiants. Ceux-ci comprennent mieux la dynamique entre la bibliothèque et ses clients, parce qu'ils voient à la fois comment il est important de satisfaire les besoins des usagers, et aussi comment on peut faire pour satisfaire ces besoins grâce aux méthodes modernes de gestion.

Le contenu d'un cours de marketing dans une école de bibliothéconomie et de sciences de l'information dépend en fait des objectifs visés. S'il s'agit de former des spécialistes du marketing des bibliothèques et des services d'information, un contenu élaboré sera nécessaire, avec plusieurs heures de cours. Pour un cours de base assez complet, il faut compter environ quarante-cinq heures, auxquelles devront s'ajouter quatre-vingt-dix heures de lectures personnelles, de travaux en équipe, etc. Ce cours couvrira tous les aspects du marketing appliqué aux bibliothèques et services d'information, incluant la recherche marketing et des présentations sur les comportements typiques des utilisateurs. Mais encore là, les étudiants n'en sortiront pas spécialistes, un deuxième cours avec des notions avancées étant nécessaire pour en arriver là, voire même un troisième.

Si l'on veut sensibiliser les étudiants, et je crois qu'il faut à tout le moins viser cet objectif avec l'ensemble des étudiants, douze ou quinze heures pourront être suffisantes. On se contentera alors d'expliquer les notions de base et concepts-clés du marketing (marketing mix, segmentation, cible, positionnement, etc.), de discuter la notion de stratégie, de présenter ce qu'est la planification marketing, et bien entendu de parler de communication marketing (publicité, relations publiques, etc.) avec illustrations à l'appui. Cette dernière partie est toujours très stimulante pour les étudiants au niveau des attitudes.

Pour conclure, disons que les écoles de formation n'ont finalement peut-être pas le choix d'enseigner ou non le marketing à leurs étudiants. Comme le signalait Kotler lors d'une conférence à Montréal, nous arrivons bientôt à l'"âge d'or" du marketing : "Tout le monde y fera appel : les organismes à but lucratif, les organismes sans but lucratif, les jardins zoologiques, les hôpitaux, les musées (...) En fait cela deviendra "une façon d'agir" (a dominant mind set), laquelle se répand déjà"[8]. Dans ce contexte, je ne vois pas comment les bibliothèques et les autres services d'information pourraient y échapper.

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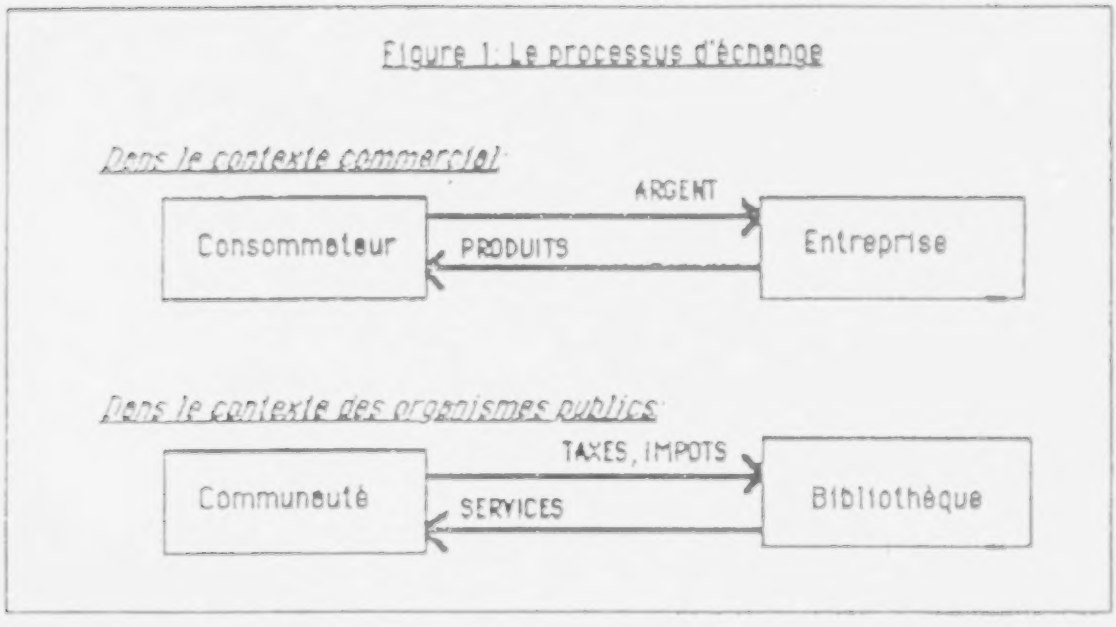
8 Benoît, J., *op. cit.*

Figure 1: Le processus d'échange



Information Management Education : Some Interdisciplinary Approaches

Marianne BROADBENT, *Head, Department of Information Services, Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology, Melbourne, Australia*

ABSTRACT

While considerable emphasis has been placed on the importance of harmonizing professional programs for librarians, information scientists and archivists, the real challenge of the future lies in integrating aspects of information management education into the beginning and post-basic programs of other professional groups and in the development of interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary programs.

Effective education for the management and use of information involves not only the sound education of information professionals in organizational and individual needs, but also the education and orientation of other key personnel towards the importance of information resources and information handling skills within organizations. The real value of library and information services might be properly appreciated only when other professionals and managers have an understanding of the value of information as a resource and connect that with those who have had education and training in information and library work.

This paper will examine the range and types of programs required to meet those challenges and outline some approaches which aim to improve the perceived value of the management and use of information to organizations and individuals.

INTRODUCTION

Both international and national professional associations have placed considerable importance on harmonizing professional programs for groups which include some or all of librarians, information scientists, records managers and archivists. Concurrently though, these information specialists need to ensure that key elements of information management education are integrated into the beginning and post-basic programs and orientation of other professional groups.

A frequent lament of librarians is that they do not receive the recognition that their expertise warrants. This dissatisfaction is expressed at many different levels : at the individual organization level — be it a university, a large company or a government department ; from other professional and industry groups ; or from the general community. Separate but complementary promotional campaigns are currently underway in Australia to redress this situation at the macro level.

In the longer term, the real value of library and information services might be properly appreciated only when other professionals and managers have an understanding of the value of information as a resource and connect that with those who have had education and training in information and library work. Effective education for the management and use of information involves not only the sound education of information specialists in organizational and individual needs, but also the education and orientation of other key personnel towards the importance of information resources and information handling skills within organizations.

This paper provides a framework for examing the range and types of programs required to meet these challenges and outlines some approaches which are aimed at improving the perceived value of the management and use of information to organizations and individuals.

Information and Educational Infrastructures

One caveat that must be observed in suggesting approaches is that the nature of the programs in different countries will vary according to the local cultural context of information. Different countries and regions exhibit different types of information infrastructures. Vallejo[1] lists these as the value that society places on information, the attitude of the planners, policy-makers and decision-makers, the level of technological development of the country, the technological changes that are or are likely to take place and the demands made by various user groups on information systems.

The educational philosophy, values and systems of a country or region provide another infrastructural layer. While recognising the commonality of functions in the information professions, Fang's report of IFLA's efforts to establish guidelines for recognition of equivalence and reciprocity for library and information science education programs[2] reminds us of the great differences in education systems and expectations from country to country. As well as being influenced by general education system of a country, there is the educational and cultural framework in which library services function, particularly those in the public sector.

Thus the "key personnel" of other professional and managerial groups will vary from country to country, as will the areas and levels of most appropriate cognate interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary programs.

Four Dimensions

In reviewing at least some of the recent literature on education for the information professions, it becomes immediately obvious that there is a great concern for "territory", "turf", "new directions" and "new dimensions"[3]. These concerns are echoed across the range of information specialities, to an extent rare in other professional clusters.

In meeting these concerns, both professional associations and schools of information and library studies (SILS) need to separate out what are often expressed as generalized concerns into at least five dimensions :

- Areas of Study
- Faculty or School Alignment
- Core program developments
- Education and orientation of co-professionals
- Management education and orientation

The first two dimensions appear to provide the context for the way in which particular schools tackle the third and fourth dimensions.

Six years ago this then more naive analyst sought to define the boundaries of concern for, what was then, an academic department of librarianship[4]. After examining information science and information management paradigms, the conclusion reached was that librarianship was not a discrete area and that the field was really part of a wider paradigms, which were still emerging and in the process of definition. At present it remains the case that definitions and explanations of "information science" and "information management" are contextual in nature and the term "information" is not "owned" by any one area of study or professional grouping. We need to accept this and use it as a basis for building on strengths and developing new alliances and alignments.

Areas of Study and Faculty Base

There are three broad areas of study which currently appear to be most cognate to the naturally interdisciplinary concerns of Information and Library Science programs[5]. These study areas are :

- Computing Science
- Management and Business Studies
- Media and Communication Studies

The emphasis in particular programs will depend on the history and evolution of the school and institution in which the program is based, as well as geopolitical, economic and industry factors. These will subsist in the context of national or regional educational and information infrastructure characteristics.

Interrelated to these areas of study is the Faculty or Division in which the School or Department of Information and Library Studies is a part. In some countries and institutions the School may not be so aligned. But in many countries and institutions, Schools are not sufficiently large to have a separate or unaligned existence. The list of possible Faculties or Schools has almost endless possible permutations, but some of the major groupings in Australia, as elsewhere, are :

- Computing and Information Sciences
- Social Science, Communication Studies
- Arts
- Education
- Business, Management

The emphasis given to each area of study and the larger entity in which the SILS sits has an interactive influence on the nature and direction of information specialist education programs. This in turn has implications for the type and nature of programs developed for other professionals and managers.

For exemple, at the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology (RMIT) the Department of Information Services has been part of

one Faculty, the Faculty of Applied Social Sciences and Communication, till earlier in 1989. We now have "joint faculty status" between this Faculty and RMIT's Faculty of Business. This is a realignement we have sought for future institutional, educational and professional developments. It is an alignment which has been welcomed by the Faculty of Business and strongly supported by that Faculty through the Institute's decision-making processes. Information Services is the first Department to be granted such joint status.

We are also part of the Information Technology Division, which is a grouping of information technology oriented departments from different faculties across the Institute. These affiliations provide us with a particular focus and links which have influenced our capacity and willingness to venture into information management education for other professionals. Perhaps more importantly though, these links have influenced the desire for our co-professionals in related and other fields to have our staff teach into their programs.

Core program developments

Most professionally accredited schools offer a number of programs at different levels. The most frequently occurring Australian pattern involves beginning level programs at undergraduate degree and graduate diploma levels, with both of these programs being recognised as first professional awards by the Australian Library and Information Association. Masters level programs usually provide post-basic educational opportunities. Most of Australia's major cities provide post-basic education in information and library studies in at least one institution, and some library and information professionals undertake post-initial studies in related areas such as management, computing and education.

RMIT's developments in the masters area have resulted in the design of a multidisciplinary post-basic Masters Degree by coursework. The Department of Information Services has played a major role in the development of the program which combines study in the areas of information, management and technology and interdisciplinary project work. The first student intake began the program in February, 1989.

Since its initial inception by the Department in 1984, the program has undergone a number of changes of name and "partners", though the essence of the course which has emerged is similar to the Department's initial plans. The program has specialists clusters of subjects offered by the four Advanced Sector departments in the Information Technology Division: Information Services, Business Information Systems, Computer Science and Communication Engineering. The clusters offered by Information Services and Business Information Systems commenced in 1989 with the title of *Master of Business (Information Technology)*. The other two clusters are scheduled for introduction in 1990. In addition to the specialist subjects, all students undertake a range of generalist management and policy subjects offered by the Departments of Administrative Studies, Accountancy and Social Science.

The course aims to provide individuals with opportunities to develop their understanding of and competence in information management and information technology management. The course, aimed very much at practitioners, combines coursework study in areas which support the work of information and library services managers. Initial subjects offered by the Department of Information Services included "Information Management", "Evaluation of Information Services" and "Information Technology in Libraries". Some of the Information Services students are taking other specialist subjects including "Information Technology Industry" and "Systems Analysis". Students in project-based subjects are expected to undertake problem solving projects in interdisciplinary groups, followed by the completion of a minor thesis.

This Masters program builds on first award undergraduate and graduate diploma courses in Information Services. In the Australian context, the Masters program recognises the need for information and library managers to undertake post-basic studies in both the management and information management areas. At the same time it provides an opportunity for both business systems and information services students to study particular subjects together and to work in teams on projects. The program is seen as providing a framework for other interdisciplinary ventures by RMIT, building on the institute's strengths in the management and technology areas.

Co-professional education

Virtually all professional-level positions, as well as many others, have an information-handling component. Groups such as lawyers, journalists, economists, teachers, health workers, scientists and technologists all need to process information and use considerable information resources, both formal and informal, in doing so. If these professionals are to make best use of the information and the skills and expertise of information specialists, they need an understanding and appreciation of the use and value of information resources in their work and the work of those who function as information intermediaries for the more effective completion of some types of tasks and functions.

Such expertise and orientation requires more than elementary user education programs in academic library use through their course of study (though that could be classed as an excellent co-requisite). It requires an integrated course component on the organization, management and use of information of relevance to the professional group. This should be followed up by both on-the-job training and continuing professional education programs. For information specialists and schools of information and library studies it means a willingness and ability to "share the mystique" in a purposeful way with our fellow professionals.

At RMIT the Department of Information Services has responsibility for offering information handling subjects in Degree programs in Journalism, Public Relations and Social and Environmental Assessment and Policy, with Business Systems beginning in 1990. In each of these programs, the Department's staff are seen to offer specific professional expertise which is required by other professional groups. There is particular interest in learning about both internal and external sources of information and how these can be integrated to provide better information systems and services. For the Business students, additional subjects at both Degree and Graduate Diploma level are in preparation. These focus on business information sources, automated records management and integrated information services.

Staff teach engineering graduates in the management-oriented post-basic Master of Systems Engineering degree. We have input into the "Management Information Systems" subject and supervise project work in the Masters Degree in Systems Engineering. The expertise we are seen to have by our fellow academics in the Faculty of Engineering is a different but complementary approach to the study of information and an understanding of external information sources, particularly those available in electronic form.

These developments bring with them demands which are somewhat different to those of information specialist education, but, in the long term, are advantageous to the industry and profession. Staff and graduates in the information and library studies areas are seen to have valuable knowledge and skills in the information management area and are continually raising the profile of the value of information with other professional (or neophyte professional) groups. Academic staff, in their planning and teaching, work with "users" and potential "users" in a which parallels that of practitioners.

Management education needs

The phrase "co-professionals and managers" has been deliberately used throughout this paper. In attempting to provide a framework for integrating aspects of Information Management education into other programs, there is a need to separate out the co-professionals with whom an information specialist may work and senior management to whom an information specialist may report. The needs of these two groups can be quite different, though of course, individuals crossover from one group to the other.

An adapted form of Koenig's "Information Frame"[6] enables us to depict these differences. Coprofessionals generally will be working in the middle layer of "Management Control" while senior management is involved in long range and strategic planning at the apex of the organization.

Information has time, scope and source dimensions which vary according to the level and nature of decision-making involved. At the strategic and directing levels, planning, prediction and the achievement of organizational objectives requires greater reliance on externally derived information resources about business or government environments, markets and competitors. Executive management requires information which is more diverse in scope and has a longer time horizon. While some of this may be part of a decision support or expert system, not all of the information required at strategic and

directing levels can be put into such a structured form and format.

Studies of occupational patterns in the services sector quoted by Moore[7] show that all managers are increasingly required to acquire planning, analytical, knowledge-based and problem-solving skills. The increased demands on managers at tactical and strategic levels are such that, in more advanced organizations, it is more effective to use information specialists for information-handling tasks and have these work closely with senior managers, rather than senior managers undertake their own information work. Organizations are recruiting fewer generalist managers and more management specialists, including computer experts and information specialists, to help them handle what has become known as "information intensive management".

The effective monitoring and delivery of external information, assessing the environment and the positioning of competitors is increasingly important for all types of organizations, whether they be public or private sector, national or transnational bodies. Cronin[8] used Mintzberg's organizational framework to differentiate management requirements and information handling needs. Information specialists have been seen as "support staff" with a rather circumscribed sphere of activity and responsibility. While this is appropriate in some areas, it means that at the "strategic apex" information management requirements are often under or mis-capitalised. A firm's ability to develop an appropriate strategy will depend greatly on the intrinsic quality and perceived value of the intelligence funnelled to the strategic apex.

This "intelligence" relates to information external to the firm. While some of this is gleaned at a personal level and is intuitive and subjective, much environmental, government and competitor information is available from public sources to provide input to the "strategic apex". However, it often requires an astute research or information analyst to identify and synthesise the information most relevant to the organization and to present it effectively to management. And it requires management alert to the value and use of information specialists in order for this chain of events to occur.

There has been a remarkable and documented increase in the recent years in the coverage given to information and information technology matters in the general management and business literatures and arenas[9]. This attention does not necessarily bring with it increased recognition of the importance of information and library services. The importance to the information and library professions of alerting managers and future managers to the role and value of different types of information specialists cannot be underestimated and requires a range of educational responses.

Relationships with Management Specialists

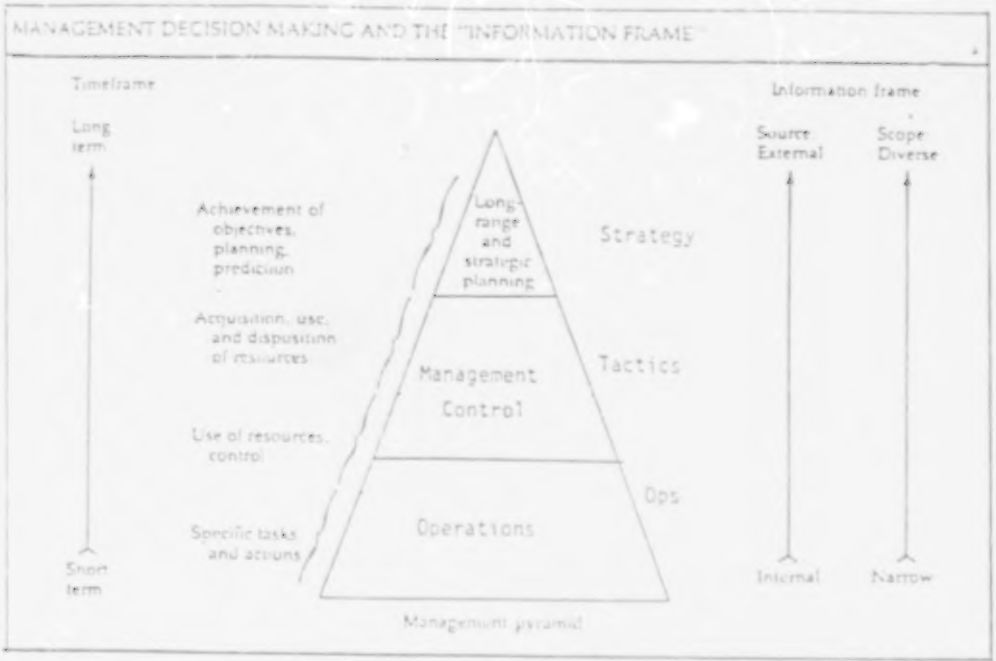
Koenig[10], Roberts[11] and Garrison[12] have reviewed the current relationships of information and library studies programs with schools of management and business faculties. As with other information developments, they agree that though these issues seem to be of concern to information and library schools and information specialists generally, this concern is not evident in programs which are primarily in the management and business areas.

As indicated earlier, at RMIT we are now part, though not yet full members, of the Faculty of Business through a "joint faculty arrangement". This is providing us with a very hospitable environment in which to develop a "renovated" degree program and some new joint initiatives. The Business Faculty has a range of undergraduate and graduate programs including business systems, business administration, economics and finance, accounting, management, marketing and municipal management.

Our profile in the management area has been considerably enhanced by the links the Department of Information Services initiated and developed with the state branch of leading professional association of managers, Australian Institute of Management. This began with a joint seminar on "Strategic Information Services" led by Professor Tom Wilson when he was visiting Australia in 1988. We followed this by preparing a regularly offered one day seminar on "Identifying Strategic Information Opportunities". Earlier in 1989 we were asked to develop a range of new programs which addressed management's need to better understand, appreciate, use and manage information systems and services. We prepared four short courses with input and assistance from our colleagues in the Business Information Systems Department at RMIT. These are being offered as joint RMIT-AIM programs and are now part of the regular series of continuing professional programs offered by the Australian Institute of Management in our state. We hope in this way to gain some long term leverage into the management education area.

Experiences of Initiating Alliances

In reflecting on some of RMIT's experiences in attempting to integrate information management education with that of other professionals and managers, a few key factors have been vital.



These relate to the educational and information infrastructure in which we operate, the type of institution of which we are a part, both our previous and current Faculty bases, extensive institutionally-fostered links with a range of other departments and faculties, and opportunities created and taken with external groups.

RMIT Information Services programs have always been strong in the management and technology areas, as befits programs in an institute or university of technology. Melbourne provides a very dynamic environment for educating information specialists. It is the home of Australia's large database vendors, national telecommunications network and national scientific and technological information services. We have a substantial financial and resource industry headquarters based in Melbourne and a state government which has had Freedom of Information legislation in operation for seven years.

Some of the developments, such as those in the engineering education area, have been initiated by senior academics in other areas who have had industry experience of first rate information services, particularly external database searching, provided by library services. We should not underestimate the impact of positive experiences of either senior academics or senior managers. The interdependent relationship of educators and practitioners is crucial and needs to be recognised as such.

CONCLUSION

While acknowledging the importance of harmonizing professional programs for different types of information specialists, we must, at the same time, develop relationships and programs with fellow professionals and managers. These may be by way of formal programs at beginning and post-basic levels, as well as, where appropriate, continuing professional development programs. The nature and type of programs developed will depend on a range of factors, including perceived emphasis in areas of study, faculty bases and other personal and professional contacts. Each school and professional group should be identifying key areas for alliances and alignments, beginning with what is achievable.

Links need to be developed and maintained in many different arenas: within academic institutions, with other professional and industry associations and within the workplace. Appreciation of the value of information resources and the skills of information specialists does not come easily. It has to be earnt and learnt.

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51-TRAIN-2-E

Educational Implications of Information Development

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ABSTRACT

Information development determines the type of information needs of a nation. In this paper, it was assessed using library and publishing indicators of 31 countries over an 18 year period. Some of the conclusions reached in the study were that less developed countries (LDCs) seem to be one cluster of nations when their information development is compared with highly developed countries (HDCs). Information development seems to speed up, until countries have met the satisfaction of basic human needs of the population. Libraries were, on the other hand, declining in HDCs during the period under study.

The results of the study can be taken as indicators of the type of information education required by countries of different levels of development. HDCs' educational needs are likely to be better defined than those of LDCs whose development is highly polarised. In other words, HDCs can train information specialists with less varied programs, while LDCs require polarised information-education to provide services that range from basic information needs to high technology sophisticated needs.

1. DEMAND OF INFORMATION SPECIALISTS

Modern society is a world of complexities that requires a myriad of professionals. The structural differentiation of society has produced an extensive division of labour. Among professions that modern society demands are information specialists. As societies become more complex, information becomes an element that pervades human activity, creating the need for this kind of professional. Industrialised countries have a stronger demand for information specialists. Their economies are already engaged in the so-called service-oriented economy, which bases economic activity on the efficient use of information. Developing nations have also a demand for information professionals, but this demand depends on the level of information development which is, in turn, a product of socio-economic development reached by countries.

Information development sets a pace and dictates the type of information needs of a nation. Any educational program to train information specialists succeeds according to the relevance it may have to national level of information activities. Therefore, the study of information development is a key element in the planning of educational programs, especially in countries where economic resources are scarce.

2. ASSESSMENT OF INFORMATION DEVELOPMENT

In this study[12], information development was studied along

with social development. The number of countries studied was 31 (*see* Table 1). The population included countries of different levels of socio-economic development, that is, low, middle, and highly developed nations. The period assessed was between 1960 and 1977, when the world reached the peak of economic growth of this century.

Information and social development phenomena were studied under the assumption that:

2.1.
Between 1960 and 1977 highly developed countries (HDCs) improved their economies at a high rate.

2.2.
This process was characterised by an increased use and awareness of information activities.

2.3.
During the same period less developed countries (LDCs) also improved their economic performance.

2.4.
If LDCs improved their economic performance then, presumably, their economies relied more on recorded information.

2.5.
Since LDC economies improved, living standards also improved correspondingly.

2.6.
If living standards or basic needs satisfaction were improved then, LDC populations should have also increased their demand for recorded information.

These hypothetical assumptions led to this investigation, where information development was narrowed to three printed information components: 1) centres storing information, 2) stocks of information accumulated by countries, and 3) recording of information. The first two components were characterised by ten library indicators and the third factor was represented by five publishing variables. Socio-economic development was, on the other hand, limited to five social components: health, education, food, water supply, and sanitation. These social components were represented by five indicators of basic human needs[2]. For a complete list of indicators of each component, *see* the Appendix.

International time-series data were gathered from secondary sources[10,11] and missing data were calculated using regression techniques[7]. The same regression results were used to analyse type and amount of change of information and social indicators. Countries were also studied with clustering analysis which is a classificatory statistical technique[8,9]. They were classified using different combinations of indicators. Finally, bivariate and multiple regression analyses were applied to study the relationship between social and information development of countries with time-series, and with cross-sectional data.

3. INFORMATION AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT ARE CLOSELY LINKED

In this section some of the main results obtained with the statistical analysis of the data are summarised. For a complete version of the results *see* Ref. 5-6.

3.1.
Social and information indicators were cluster analyzed independently. Basic needs indicators of 1977 grouped countries into three clusters, which agrees with the known division of countries of low, middle and highly developed nations (*see* Table 1). However, the classification obtained showed that countries grouped differently from what they would do if GNP per capita were taken into account, *e.g.* Kuwait with a high income fused with nations of lower social development.

3.2.
The classification of countries using library and publishing indicators fused most nations in two groups: those with high values and those with low values. These results reflected that LDCs lack significant information differences between them, despite the fact that some were middle income countries (MICs) nations, and others were low income countries (LICs). Therefore, information differences were greater than those of social aspects. *See*, as an example, Table 2 which was obtained testing the surrogate indicators of library and publishing activities, that is total national number of volumes and newsprint consumption per 100,000 inhabitants.

3.3.
Growth/decrease in library and publishing indicators was studied in the five groups of nations formed in the cluster analysis of 1977 basic needs indicators. The regression models fitted to the variables and their resulting slope coefficients were used to determine change, that is growth/decrease. Information change in the five groups had the following characteristics:

3.3.1. Group one. The 13 countries that formed this HDC group showed, in general, that libraries were declining, but volumes were increasing. However, number of libraries were increasing in new developed countries, like Spain and Hong-Kong. In social aspects, most nations experienced little change, meaning that they had already reached the satisfaction of basic needs of the population by 1960. Countries like Spain achieved high gains in this period, reflecting that its social development was recently achieved.

3.3.2. Group two. This group which falls between HDCs and MICs showed varied information change. Yugoslavia and Cyprus had similar growth to that of group one nations, however Kuwait and Yugoslavia had a low change which did not match their HDC social development. The four countries were, on the other hand, characterised by having high social gains.

3.3.3. Group three. The group of eight cases included in this group are regarded as middle income countries. Their social and information development was with a constant, linear rate of change. Cases like South-Korea and Mexico had substantial increases in number of libraries and volume stocks, as well as in the meeting of basic needs of the population.

3.3.4. Group four. This low income group formed by Sri-Lanka, Thailand and Western-Samoa had an erratic social and information development. Change was high in some variables, but low in others, showing that development was not even.

3.3.5. Group five. Comoros, Malawi and Gambia were included in this LIC group. Some of their social and information gains were the highest, but some others were of the lowest among all groups. This was because of the low starting point of development of these countries in 1960. In a few words, their development was polarised and uneven.

4. CONCLUSIONS: EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS OF INFORMATION DEVELOPMENT

Education as part of the socialisation process offered by the state becomes more complex in societies which are undergoing the process of early development. Therefore, developing countries, whose development includes backwardness and modernity at all levels of activity, have more problems to educate or train information specialists. These countries require more than one kind of information specialists to meet needs generated by an also polarised information development.

According to the results of this study, countries information differences were greater than social ones. HDCs' libraries were declining between 1960 and 1977, a fact that may have shown early HDC reliance on non-printed information. Moreover, countries that had not met the satisfaction of social needs, even if they had a MIC economy, did not show an overall information development. These results are an indication that:

4.1.
HDCs nations (groups 1 and 2) have an easier task in the training of information specialists, despite the fact that they are undergoing the transition from industrial society to information society. Their information needs are better defined, therefore educational programs can be oriented towards the needs of the information technology era.

4.2.
MICs (group 4) require a dualistic approach in the education of information specialists. Their social development implies that they have large groups within the society with basic information needs, but also groups with high level information needs. Therefore, MICs need to train information specialists that can cater to traditional information services, but also to information technology services if MICs are to compete in the international economy.

4.3.
LICs, with the lowest income in the population studied

TABLE 1

COUNTRIES GROUPED ACCORDING TO THEIR 1977 SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Classification obtained with cluster analysis

GROUP 1	GROUP 2	GROUP 4
Austria	Cyprus	Sri Lanka
Bulgaria	Kuwait	Thailand
Finland	Portugal	Western Samoa
Hong Kong	Yugoslavia	
Hungary		
Ireland		
Japan	GROUP 3	GROUP 5
Norway		
Poland	Bahamas	Comoros
Rumania	Colombia	Gambia
Spain	Fiji Isls	Malawi
USA	South Korea	
USSR	Mexico	
	Panama	
	Trinidad and Tobago	
	Venezuela	

TABLE 2

FUSION OF COUNTRIES USING 1977 INFORMATION INDICATORS**

Classification obtained with cluster analysis

GROUP ONE (HDCs)		GROUP TWO (LDCs)	
Austria	Japan	Colombia	Portugal
Bahamas*	Norway	Cyprus	Spain
Bulgaria	Poland	Fiji Isls	Sri Lanka
Finland	Rumania	Gambia	South Korea
Hong Kong	Trinidad and T.*	Kuwait	Thailand
Hungary	USA	Malawi	Venezuela
Ireland	USSR	Mexico	Western Samoa
		Panama	Yugoslavia

* Fusion in this group may be due to missing values
**number of volumes and newsprint consumption per 1000 inhabitants 1977 values
***Comoros was excluded due to lack of data in one variable

APPENDIX

LIST OF INDICATORS ASSESSED IN THE STUDY

Number in brackets indicate data sources

LIBRARY INDICATORS [10]:	PUBLISHING INDICATORS [10]:
National number of libraries:	Total number
National	Book titles and pamphlets
University	Daily newspaper circulation
School	Newsprint paper consumption
Special	Non-daily newspaper circul.
Public	Other periodical titles
National number of volumes:	BASIC NEEDS INDICATORS [11]:
National	
University	Food consumption in calories
School	Life expectancy at birth
Special	Infant mortality rate
Public	Adjusted enrollment rate in primary schools
	Adult literacy rate

(groups 4 and 5), are likely to require educational programs which are more oriented towards the traditional information needs of the population, which are mainly orally satisfied. Their limited need for IT specialists is likely to be met more cheaply by training personnel abroad.

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14-LIBHI-1-E

The International Role of the Library of Congress: A Brief History

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Abstract

Today the Library of Congress is an international institution. The scope of its collections and services is universal, and not limited by subject, format, or national boundary. It collects research materials in more than 450 languages, and two-thirds of the books it acquires each year are in languages other than English. Its collections and services are available to everyone. Thus the Library of Congress is a unique reservoir of knowledge and information for understanding the entire world.

This article summarizes the concepts and actions that have transformed a library established in 1800 by the American legislature for its own use into an international library and resource.

Today the Library of Congress is an international institution. The scope of its collections and services is universal, and not limited by subject, format, or national boundary. It collects research materials in more than 450 languages, and two-thirds of the books it acquires each year are in languages other than English. Its collection of books, pamphlets, manuscripts, music, maps, newspapers, microforms, and graphic arts and other materials numbers over 85 million items, and includes larger Hispanic-American and Arabic collections than exist in Latin America or the Arabic world, and the largest Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Polish, and Russian collections outside of these countries. The collections of the Library of Congress are available to everyone, and so are the bibliographic, research, and interpretive services of its more than 4,800 employees, services which are based on these comprehensive collections. Thus the Library of Congress is a unique reservoir of knowledge and information for understanding the entire world.

How did this happen? Why did a library established by the American national legislature for its own use become an international library, universal in scope and service? These are the questions addressed in this brief historical review.[1]

Concepts

The Library of Congress is a world library today because Thomas Jefferson (1743-1826), its principal founder, believed that a democratic legislature needed information and ideas from throughout the world in order to do its job.

Established by the American Congress in 1800 in the new Capital city of Washington, the Library of Congress initially contained historical and legal works that legislators thought were useful. While President of the United States (1801-1809), Thomas Jefferson took a strong interest in the Library. But the British invaded Washington in 1814 and destroyed the Capitol building and the small library it housed. Former president Jefferson, then living in Monticello, offered to sell his personal library of over 6,000 volumes to Congress to "recommence" its library. The purchase was approved in 1815, doubling the size of the Library of Congress and permanently expanding the scope of the collections.

Jefferson's library reflected his wide-ranging interests in subjects such as architecture, science, geography, and literature, and included volumes in French, German, Latin, and Greek. Anticipating the argument that his collection might be too comprehensive for use by the legislature, Jefferson explained that there was "no subject to which a member of Congress might not have occasion to refer." Congress agreed and since then so have Presidents of the United States, Members of Congress, and Librarians of Congress. The Jeffersonian concept of universality, the belief that all subjects are important to the library of American legislature, is the philosophy and the rationale behind the comprehensive collecting policies of today's Library of Congress.

The individual responsible for transforming the Library of Congress into an institution of national significance was Ainsworth Rand Spofford, who served as Librarian of Congress from 1865 until 1897. Spofford permanently linked the Library's legislative and national functions and his notion of the Library of Congress as both the legislative library for the American Congress and the national library for the American people was wholeheartedly accepted by his successors as Librarian. Spofford centralized all U.S. copyright deposit and registration activities at the Library of Congress in 1870. The copyright law, which ensured the continuing expansion of the Americana collections through copyright deposit, also eventually forced the construction of a separate Library building. In fact by 1875 all shelf space was gone.

Ainsworth Spofford's view of the proper function of a national library followed the European model, particularly that of the British Museum: a national library was a comprehensive accumulation of "the intellectual product of the country in every field of science and literature." The Congress needed such a collection because, as Spofford paraphrased Jefferson, "there is almost no work, within the vast range of literature and science, which may not at some time prove useful to the legislature of a great nation." It was imperative, he felt, that such a great national collection be shared with all citizens, for the United States was "a Republic which rests upon the popular intelligence."[2]

The collections of the Library were of paramount importance to Jefferson and Spofford. Moreover, the functions and services of the Library of Congress, national and international, have derived from the collections which these two men acquired and inspired.

Spofford's successor as Librarian of Congress was John Russell Young, a journalist, former diplomat and a skilled administrator who worked hard "to build the library into the future, to make it a true library of research."[3] Young's concept of the Library's national role coincided with Spofford's: it was to be grand national accumulation of the nation's literature,

open for all to use. Young's successor, Herbert Putnam, Librarian of Congress from 1899 to 1939, extended Spofford's philosophy, for he felt a national library should be much more than a comprehensive national collection in Washington. To Herbert Putnam a national library was "a collection universal in scope which has a duty to the country as a whole," and its prime duty was service to scholarship.[4]

The first experienced librarian to become Librarian of Congress, Putnam felt that a national library should "reach out" from Washington by serving other librairies, and under his decisive leadership in the first decade of the century, the Library of Congress began direct service to libraries and to scholars. Through the sale and distribution of printed catalog cards, the development of classification schedules and union catalogs, interlibrary loan and other innovations, he nationalized the Library's collections and services and established the patterns of service that exist today. Under Putnam, the Library of Congress began the formidable task of organizing recorded knowledge for public service.

Putnam also added significantly to the Library's special collections about other cultures. However it was the poet and writer Archibald MacLeish, Librarian of Congress from 1939-1944, who first articulated the Jeffersonian rationale as it applied to foreign materials. In 1940 MacLeish announced three "Canons of Selection," which were the Library's objectives "with regard to the character of the collections." The third canon stated:

> The Library of Congress should possess, in some useful form, the material parts of the records of other societies, past and present, and should accumulate, in original or in copy, full and representative collections of written records of those societies and peoples whose experience is of most immediate concern to the people of the United States.[5]

Archibald MacLeish was a wartime librarian and there is a sense of urgency in his statements about the role of libraries and librarians in preserving democratic culture. Librarians, for example, "must themselves become active and not passive agents of the democratic process."[6] In 1941, as war approached, MacLeish and his colleagues recognized that the Library's collection was a national treasure that needed protecting, and items considered irreplaceable were removed from Washington for most of the war. World War II's most important effect on the Library, however, was that it stimulated the development of the Library's collections about other countries and cultures. MacLeish's successor as Librarian, Luther H. Evans, succinctly described the new era in December 1945, six months after he had taken office:

> It is necessary to remember that the destruction (of civilization) has been avoided only through an unprecedented mobilization of man's knowledge of himself and his environment... no spot on the earth's surface is any longer alien to the interest of the American people. No particle of knowledge should remain unavailable to them.[7]

For Evans, "the interest of the American people," meant the interest of the Library of Congress, and he soon made plans for revitalizing and augmenting the Library's foreign acquisitions program and for engaging the Library in cooperative international activities. Evans was not as successful in expanding the Library as he wished, but before he resigned in 1953 to become Secretary General of Unesco, he had shaped the basic direction of the Library's future international role. For him the Library of Congress, "a universal library with a national duty," was also "an international servant of enlightenment."[8]

Some Early Accomplishments

In areas such as the acquisition of official foreign publications, Evans was able to build on strong foundations. The first Library of Congress exchange of publications with a foreign country, France, took place in 1837. However foreign documents did not begin to arrive at the Library of Congress in quantity until after 1867, when Congress passed a resolution authorizing the exchange of public documents. The acquisition the previous year of the Smithsonian Institution's library gave the Library of Congress an outstanding collection of foreign scientific publications. Librarian Putnam took an aggressive attitude toward the acquisition of official publications, strengthening the international exchange system and sending Library employees to countries to seek publications and new exchange agreements. In October and November 1926, for example, James B. Childs, chief of the Documents Division, visited Germany, Russia, Lithuania, and Latvia; the next year he went to Bulgaria, Greece, Rumania, and Yugoslavia.[9]

A precedent of a different sort was established in 1928 when Charles Martel, chief of Catalogue Division, joined two former Library of Congress colleagues, William Warner Bishop and J.C.M. Hanson, in Rome to install in the Vatican Library "the methods of cataloging in vogue in American libraries." In describing this project, Librarian Putnam noted that there were three other foreign libraries with which the Library of Congress "would gladly develop cooperative relations: the British Museum, the Bibliothèque Nationale, and the State Library in Berlin."[10]

Putnam also had been far-sighted in acquiring research collections about other countries and cultures. In 1901 he told a group of scholars that the National Library "had a duty" to gather and make available the records and publications of the other countries in the Western Hemisphere.[11] In 1904 he purchased a 4,000-volume library of Indica owned by a professor of Sanskrit at the University of Berlin. In 1906 he boldly acquired the 80,000-volume private library of Russian literature owned by G.V. Yudin of Siberia, even sending a Library of Congress staff member to Russia to supervise the packing and shipping of the books. A 10,000-volume private collection of Hebraica was donated in 1912. Collections of Chinese and Japanese books also were acquired, and Putnam took great pride in the establishment, in 1928, of a division of Chinese literature which he planned to make into "the center on this hemisphere for the pursuit of oriental studies."[12]

While Putnam preferred to send Library of Congress employees abroad in pursuit of collections, the Library also developed a tradition of cooperating with other U.S. Government agencies to acquire research materials. In 1898 Librarian of Congress John Russell Young, a former diplomat, sent a circular letter to U.S. diplomatic and consular representatives around the world, asking them to gather appropriate materials on behalf of the Library. In 1941 Librarian MacLeish initiated a Hispanic Exchange Project through the Department of State and before the end of World War II representatives of the Foreign Service and the Office of War Information were authorized to transact business on the Library's behalf. In 1942 MacLeish persuaded the Bureau of the Budget to establish the Indepartmental Committee for the Acquisition of Foreign Publications. This effort benefited the Library enormously and was the forerunner of the Library of Congress Mission in Europe, which was established three years later by Luther Evans.

Facing A New World

The major lesson of World War II, according to Librarian Evans, was that "however large our collections may now be, they are pitifully and tragically small in comparison with the demands of the nation."[13] He described the need for larger collections of research materials about foreign countries in practical, patriotic terms, noting that during the war, while weather data on the Himalayas from the Library's collections helped the Air Force, "the want of early issues of the *Vœlkische Beobachter* prevented the first auguries of Naziism." Moreover, if the Library of Congress or any other American library had held detailed maps of certain European cities, the destruction of several "intellectual monuments" could have been prevented.[14]

The Library of Congress Mission to Europe, organized by Evans and his Library of Congress colleague Verner W. Clapp in 1945, took on the task of acquiring European publications for the Library and for other American libraries. Automatic purchase agreements ("blanket orders") with foreign dealers around the world were started, and priced exchange agreements for the international exchange of official publications were initiated.

Evans believed the new technology of microfilming was an important acquisitions tool, and he used it imaginatively in cooperative projects to benefit the Library of Congress and other libraries. In 1949, for example, in cooperation with the American School of Oriental Research in Jerusalem, a small Library of Congress team microfilmed significant manuscripts in St. Catherine's Monastery on Mt. Sinai and in the Greek Orthodox and Armenian Patriarchate Libraries in Jerusalem. A microfilming program for official gazettes from the Mexican states was started and selected records in the Japanese Foreign Office were filmed.

It is hardly surprising that Librarian Evans strengthened area studies within the Library. He established the European Affairs Division in 1948, and organized new European, British, Orientalia, and Hispanic sections in the Exchange and Gift Division. In

spite of budget limitations, he added a Korean specialist to the staff of the Orientalia Division. He also supported several unique gatherings of scholars and librarians, including the First Assembly of Librarians of the Americas in 1947, the first conference of Mexican and North American historians in 1949, the first international colloquium on Luso-Brazilian Studies in 1950, and a Near Eastern colloquium in 1950. New publications started by Librarian Evans included the *Handbook of Latin American Studies* and the *East European Accessions List*.

The Librarian's international outlook intensified during his eight years in office. In 1945 he was a United States delegate to the London conference that established the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (Unesco) as an important part of the fledgling United Nations structure. He continued his close involvement with Unesco in spite of criticism from several Congressmen in the early 1950's who complained that Evans was devoting more time to Unesco matters than he was to the Library of Congress. In fact Evans believed that the programs and purposes of Unesco and the Library paralleled each other and indeed he brought the organizations together in several activities, particularly the development of the Universal Copyright Convention and promoting standardized procedures for bibliographical control.[15]

Through the leadership of Luther Evans, the Library of Congress became committed to international library and cultural cooperation. Evans and his associates, particularly Chief Assistant Librarian Verner Clapp, believed the Library could contribute to international affairs through deed and by example. The Library organized a reference library in San Francisco in 1945 to assist the participants in the meeting that established the United Nations. And in 1947 a Library of Congress Mission to Japan headed by Clapp, provided advice for the establishment of the National Diet Library. Luther Evans also strongly believed that original source materials belonged in the countries of their creation. His policy of cultural reparation included the return in 1952 of a letter of Christopher Columbus, written in Seville in 1504, to the archives of the Real Academia de la Historia in Madrid and the return of Peruvian and Mexican materials to their countries of origin.[16]

Sharing Information and Ideas

Outspoken and in manner and extremely eager to expand both the national and the international roles of the Library of Congress, Librarian Evans did not get along well with the conservative, post-war Congress. In 1946 the Appropriations Committee even questioned the Library's authority for its expansion beyond its legislative role. This crisis was overcome, but in this difficult atmosphere the Library of Congress grew slowly during the rest of Evans' librarianship, which lasted until 1953 when he resigned to become director general of Unesco. His successor, nominated by President Dwight D. Eisenhower, was L. Quincy Mumford, director of the Cleveland Public Library. Eventually Mumford guided the Library through its greatest period of national and international expansion, but not until after he had restored good relations and mutual confidence between the Congress and its Library.

In the 1960s the Library of Congress benefited from the increased federal funding available for education, libraries, and research. Most dramatic was the growth of the Librarian's foreign acquisitions program, an expansion based on Evans' achievements a decade earlier. In 1958 the Library was authorized by Congress to acquire books by using U.S.-owned foreign currency under the terms of the Agricultural Trade Development and Assistance Act of 1954 (Public Law 480). The first appropriation for this purpose was made in 1961, enabling the Library to establish acquisitions centers in New Delhi and Cairo to purchase publications and distribute them to research libraries throughout the United States. This was only the first step, however.

In 1965 President Lyndon B. Johnson approved the Higher Education Act of 1965. Title II C of the new law had great significance for the Library of Congress and for academic and research libraries, because it authorized the Office of Education to transfer funds to the Library of Congress for the ambitious purposes of 1) acquiring, insofar as possible, all library materials currently published throughout the world of value to scholarship; and 2) providing cataloging information for these materials promptly after they had been received. This law comes closer than any other legislation affecting the Library of Congress to making Jefferson's concept of comprehensiveness and universality part of the Library's official mandate. The new effort was christened the National Program for Acquisitions and Cataloging (NAPC). The first NPAC office was opened in London in 1966. By 1971, the Library of Congress had 13 overseas offices.

By 1970, the development of international bibliographical standards was an important concern. The general problem had been addressed in the Unesco conferences of 1946 and 1949 in which Luther Evans and his colleagues participated, but by 1970 the age of automation had arrived, and computers were assisting in library cataloging and creating new opportunities for sharing information. The crucial development had taken place at the Library of Congress in the mid-1960s: the creation of the Library of Congress MARC (MAchine-Readable-Cataloging) format for communicating bibliographic data in machine-readable form. This new capability for converting, maintaining, and distributing bibliographic information soon became the standard format for sharing data about books and other research materials. The possibility of worldwide application was immediately recognized and the MARC format structure became an official national standard in 1971 and an international standard in 1973.[17]

Today the Library of Congress, the world's major producer of bibliographic data, also plays an important role in shaping the international standards that make the worldwide sharing of information possible. Much of the work is done through the Library's participation in the work of international organizations, particularly the International Federation of Library Associations (IFLA). In fact, it is primarily through IFLA that the Library of Congress exercices leadership in many areas of world librarianship, including cataloging, classification, serial publications, document exchange, preservation and conservation, children's literature, library services to the blind, and map librarianship.

There are many other ways in which today's Library of Congress operates as an international institution; copyright, for example, is of fundamental importance. The Library of Congress through its Copyright Office, administers the U.S. copyright law. The role of the Copyright Office in international activities is worldwide in scope, encompassing the development and implementation of copyright relations with other countries at the multilateral and bilateral levels. On March 1, 1989 the United States officially joined the Berne Copyright Convention, taking a major step towards improving worldwide protection for some of America's most important new export industries, including motion pictures, television programming, and computer programs.

James H. Billington, who took office in 1987 as the 13th Librarian of Congress, is a historian of the Soviet Union and a scholar with a deep interest in international affairs. In his statements and activities thus far, Dr. Billington has shown every intention of maintaining a strong Library of Congress role internationally.

In January 1989, for example, the National Translations Center was transferred from the John Crerar Library of the University of Chicago to the Library of Congress. The National Translation Center is an international depository and referral center for helping users locate unpublished translations of foreign-language literature. The transfer was made to strengthen its activities "by collocating it with the incomparable collections of the Library of Congress." In early 1988 the Library of Congress sent two delegations to Leningrad to assist in recovery efforts after the disastrous fire at the Library of the Academy of Sciences, and the Library is now the principal coordinator of this international replacement and recovery effort. Looking to the future, Dr. Billington has announced plans to include reading rooms for all major cultures in the restored Thomas Jefferson (Main) Building of the Library of Congress. Thus when the fully restored Jefferson Building reopens in 1993 it will be, in his words, "a living, universal museum of the written word — the closest thing anywhere to the world's memory, the place to find out what is unique about other people."[18]

These are ambitious plans, just as the maintenance and nourishing of a "world library" is a noble goal. But it also is an expensive proposition, a fact fully recognized by the Library of Congress.

Is it necessary? Thomas Jefferson thought so, and so have all of the Librarians of Congress since Ainsworth Rand Spofford. The 12th Librarian of Congress, Daniel J. Boorstin, expressed it this way:

"Our country has been peopled with immigrants from all over

the world. How could we pretend to make a truly national library for our United States unless we collected in the languages that millions spoke when they arrived-and still arrive-on these shores? In the United States, of all the nations on earth, our *national* library (like our people) must be *international*.[19]

NOTES

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13. Evans, "Library of Congress Records a New Era of World Progress," *The Sunday Star* (Washington, D.C.), December 2, 1945, p. 5.
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The Use of Anglo-French Comparisons by the Promoters of the 1850 Public Libraries Act

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ABSTRACT

The British Parliamentary Select Committee on Public Libraries of 1849-50, chaired by William Ewart MP, took its most important evidence from Edward Edwards, of the British Museum Library. The two men successfully co-ordinated the effect of this and other evidence so as to obtain from Parliament the Public Libraries Act of 1850. The evidence purported to show that, in comparison with various other countries, Britain was hopelessly deficient in libraries freely open to the public. This involved a simultaneous glorification of overseas provision and a denigration of what was available in Britain. A closer examination of the evidence from France, particularly that regarding the "bibliothèques municipales", shows that it was presented in a way which seriously misrepresented the facilities actually offered there. The resulting legislation committed British public libraries to emulate models which were thoroughly idealised and not matched to the specific needs of British communities.

On the 24th August 1848 Edward Edwards, a cataloguer at the British Museum Library, received a letter from William Ewart, a radical Member of Parliament, best known for his campaigns against capital punishment. Ewart's letter suggested that they should work together to promote legislation for a system of public libraries in England and Wales. This letter, although it was the first step towards an important cooperation, was not the first time that the two men had been in contact. Ewart had a considerable record of achievement in promoting social and cultural legislation, which included chairing the 1835 and 1836 Select Committees on Arts and Manufactures. Edwards had interested himself in the work of this committee and had been one of the founders of the Art Union of London, an organisation set up to foster art and design. Ewart was drawn into the work of the Union and the two men had become aware of their common interest in the public financing of educational and cultural institutions.

Edwards, as a self-taught former bricklayer, was passionately convinced of the value and significance of libraries and had set out some of his views in the 1836 pamphlet *A letter to Benjamin Hawes*[1]. Ewart was equally a believer in the educational potential of freely available library facilities and had brought motions before Parliament on this subject in 1840 and 1844. At the time when Ewart wrote his letter, Edwards had just published his *Remarks on the paucity of libraries freely open to the public* and an article in the *Journal of the Statistical Society of London*, in both of which he marshalled a considerable body of evidence in favour of the public library idea[2]. The means which Ewart suggested they should adopt to further their legislative aim was to encourage the setting up of a Select Committee of Parliament to investigate the question of public libraries. He argued that "Before such a Committee evidence might be given of the number of libraries abroad, the number in this country, the facilities abroad, the difficulties here, the best mode of instituting, maintaining, and effecting the formation of Libraries — and the Report of the Committee (if favourable) might lead, in a subsequent Session, to the action of the Government"[3]. Edwards happily accepted Ewart's proposal and the two began to exchange ideas and information with considerable enthusiasm.

Any idea that the proposed Select Committee was intended to be a neutral forum for the investigation of a proposal for parliamentary action should immediately be put on one side. Ewart's experience had shown him that skilful management of the membership of a committee, and the evidence set before it, could give a particularly weighty and impressive appearance to the case for desired legislative measures. Edwards' organisational work in the London Art Union (despite embarrassing financial complications) and his published work on the case for public libraries, made him an ideal mixture of researcher, expert witness and advocate. With Ewart operating from within Parliament and Edwards from without, the two were well qualified to make the best use of the Select Committee which

was eventually appointed, and which first met to hear evidence on 30th March 1849.

The Committee was chaired by Ewart himself and consisted of 15 members, prominent amongst whom were the radicals Joseph Brotherton, James Kershaw and R.A. Thicknesse. Other members included Benjamin Disraeli, the future Prime Minister, whose attendance was rather intermittent. Witnesses were called to provide information about existing libraries and about the needs of authors and others who used libraries. The resulting evidence was published as the *Report from the Select Committee on Public Libraries*, 1849 and 1850. This document then provided a basis for the framing and debating of legislation on public libraries.

Edwards was the most prominent witness and, very naturally, his message was that public libraries were conducive to the development of a better educated and better informed populace. This was, however, more or less taken as axiomatic and the chief part of his evidence concerned the contention that, in library provision, Britain was lagging behind those nations, mainly on the continent of Europe, which might be seen as its rivals. As Edwards had put it on an earlier occasion, "Not that I deem the argument from comparison at all necessary to show that additional public libraries ought to be established in this country — a proposition which might safely rest on its own merits — but because, the utility of public libraries being unquestioned, such a comparison may serve to place their existing deficiencies in a more salient and practical point of view"[4].

Edwards, in his evidence, defined public libraries as "embracing, first of all, libraries deriving their support from public funds, either wholly or in part; and I would further extend it to such libraries as are made accessible to the public to a greater or lesser degree"[5]. This is a singularly weak definition, which fails to make it clear that it is, in fact, the accessibility of general collections of literature to the whole populace, for the broadest educational and cultural purposes, that distinguishes a public library, rather than its source of funding. Ten years later in his monumental *Memoirs of libraries* he defined what he and Ewart had been seeking in 1849 much more effectively, when he wrote that "They [public libraries] must contain, in fair proportions, the books that are attractive to the uneducated and the half-educated, as well as those which subserve the studies and assist the pursuits of the clergyman, the merchant, the politician, and the professional scholar. They must be unrestrictedly open to every visitor. They must offer to all men, not only the practical science, the temporary excitements, and the prevalent opinions of the day, but the wisdom of preceding generations; the treasures of remote antiquity; and the hopes and the evidences of the world to come"[6].

The weakness of the chosen definition may, however, have had a very precise purpose. Using a definition based on public funding, and a subsidiary definition on the basis of free public access, Edwards was able to show that London had virtually no public libraries, other than that of the British Museum, and that the provinces were even worse placed. By the same definition, European libraries could be shown to be very numerous and the numbers of books available to the public much more plentiful than anywhere in Britain. The detailed way in which the evidence was used to this end is best shown by concentration on an example. Evidence from France and, in particular, the French provinces, makes an interesting and appropriate choice.

In talking of the French provinces, Edwards was able to show that there were "bibliothèques municipales", rich in medieval manuscripts, incunabula and rare editions, generously scattered throughout the country. To make the case even stronger he argued that such libraries were not merely richly stocked, but that they were also easily accessible to all, as both readers and borrowers. Particularly valuable in supporting this argument was the evidence of François Guizot. This distinguished French statesman's many public offices under the 1830-1848 monarchy included a long period as Minister of Education, during which libraries were one of his responsibilities. Guizot testified that French libraries "are accessible in every way; they are accessible for the purpose of reading, and accessible too for the purpose of borrowing books. I would not certify that it is so in every public library in France, but I am quite sure that in a great many of them the library is open to everyone who comes to read, and the books are lent to everyone who is a known person in the town, who has some public recommendation, or whose name and whose mode of living are known to the librarian"[7]. According to Guizot, a working man who could show suitable recommendation could borrow from most of the stock, well-known and learned persons could borrow rare and precious books, and only a beggar in rags might experience difficulties in using the libraries for reference.

The French evidence, and that from other countries, was presented in such a way as to give the overwhelming impression that Britain was deficient in facilities of the utmost value which, in contrast, were abundantly available overseas. The first question that we should ask concerns how far this was a valid impression. To persist with the same example, were the French libraries, which were described, really the educational and cultural resources for the whole community that the general trend of the evidence indicated them to be? The answer seems to be that they were not any such thing, and that the very origin and nature of their collections was at the root of the problem. The foundation collections were mainly the result of the revolutionary confiscation of aristocratic and religious libraries and remained state property.

As Noë Richter has put it, "The municipal librarians, considering themselves primarily guardians of a national treasure, feel they are servants of the state rather than of the local communities. They often have little interest in local needs, devoting themselves to conserving their collections and to scholarly research. Municipal libraries remained largely unconcerned with public reading during the entire nineteenth century"[8]. Not only did the very nature of their rich and historic collections and the frequently imposing style of the rooms in which they were housed tend to inhibit the ordinary, unscholarly reader from approaching, but "By strictly forbidding the lending of books and by maintaining inconvenient hours, the municipal librarians denied the working classes access to their libraries"[9].

There does not seem to be a great deal of evidence about the amounts which the cities with libraries spent on augmenting and caring for their collections, but such evidence as there is suggests that the sums concerned were minimal. In a report of 1837, Alexandre Buchon, inspecteur des Archives et des Bibliothèques, had said of the smaller towns "elles négligèrent et oublièrent de faire les dépenses nécessaires au paiement du bibliothécaire et à l'entretien régulier de l'ancien fonds"[10]. In 1853 the Ministre de l'Instruction publique organised an investigation, the results of which were published in 1857 as *Tableau statistique des bibliothèques des départements*. This showed that the 12 best endowed libraries had a budget for "matériel" of fr58,000 and the other 328 had a total of fr132,000 between them (i.e. an average of fr400 each), though in fact this included 21 libraries which had no budget for "matériel" at all. When we examine what the budget for "matériel" covered, we find that it was not only a book budget, but included lighting, catalogues, maintenance and binding.

The book acquisition that was possible, in all but a minority of the libraries, was clearly quite negligible. In the 1830s the government, prompted by Guizot, subsidised each year the publication of a number of books, which were regarded as being of scientific importance. Copies of these were distributed to libraries and frequently these official donations outnumbered the books a library had bought. Although the books may not have always been very suitable, this was at least some kind of augmentation of otherwise almost static collections. Selection of books for purchase had, since an ordinance of 1839, been vested in a "Comité d'inspection de la bibliothèque et d'achat des livres", consisting of the mayor, as chairman, and members nominated by the Ministre de l'Instruction publique. The librarian had no formal right to attend and had, therefore, a somewhat fragile influence on the selection procedure. The librarians who were employed by the towns were, at best, local scholars whose enthusiasm for literature and history was of some service to readers. At worst totally unsuitable appointments were made.

Some French municipal libraries certainly did function in the positive way that the evidence set before the Select Committee implied. At Troyes, for instance, l'Abbé Henri-Rémi Hubert, librarian from 1826 until his death in 1842, was a scholar who bequeathed his personal library of 9,000 volumes to the Bibliothèque. He was also a very progressive librarian. "Dans la Bibliothèque même, il se préoccupa de l'accueil des jeunes, du prêt libéral, des heures d'ouvertures larges, autant de bons principes de bibliothéconomie courants, mais alors vraiment neufs"[11]. By 1841 he was able to claim that "La jeunesse studieuse y trouverait des ressources, des conseils pour la diriger dans ses études et la préserver de mille et un travers"[12].

However, under his successor, Auguste Harmand, the library retreated somewhat from this policy and in 1846 a municipal arrêté suppressed the loan of books, except to teachers and known researchers. Harmand seems to have been much more concerned with the scholarly aspects of librarianship, publishing in 1855 the *Catalogue des manuscrits de la Bibliothèque de Troyes*. Despite attempts in subsequent years to make the library a centre of popular reading, by the end of the century it was basically "une sorte de "musée" de livres anciens"[13]. Indeed, it is probable that over the years the Bibliothèque bleue de Troyes (locally published chapbooks) contributed more to promoting popular reading than the Bibliothèque municipale de Troyes.

Even the evidence to the Select Committee, when read carefully, did not really support the idea that the efforts made at somewhere like Troyes, in its best periods, were particularly typical. Guizot conceded that "There are towns in which the libraries are almost shut; nobody goes to read there, and no grants have been given to them" and "The facilities for using the libraries are much greater than the disposition to use them"[14]. The *Report* also includes a very perceptive letter from the scholar Count Libri, based on his extensive travels round French libraries and citing the 1840 report of Ravaisson, the inspector of archives and libraries. Libri claimed that "These libraries of the provinces, which were generally in the charge of the municipalities, have in a great number of places fallen to the lowest point of decay, and that the greatest part have literally been consigned to pillage"[15]. (In view of later revelations that Libri was a book thief on the grand scale, this final point is replete with irony.) His communication also made the important point that "What my experience has taught me is, that it ought never to be attempted to use, as a popular library, the large libraries intended in the first instance for a superior class of readers"[16].

Edwards' statistics, and the arguments derived from them, did not pass unquestioned. A series of articles in the *Athenaeum*, signed Verificator, attacked them with malicious enthusiasm. Although Edwards had the grace to acknowledge the deficiencies of his statistics relating to French libraries, he tried to turn even this to advantage, claiming that the very freedom of access to some libraries removed the need for those formalities which produce records of transactions[17]. The Select Committee was briefly recalled for further evidence in 1850 and from Edwards' re-examination it emerged more clearly than before that his information was derived almost wholly from published sources and his own postal enquiries. Outside of Paris, the only library in Europe that he had visited personally was that of Le Havre. Despite this, Edwards and Ewart between them managed to ensure that the overwhelming impression created by the evidence recorded in the *Report of the Select Committee* supported the case for public libraries in Britain.

On the strength of this impression, Ewart was able to pilot a Bill through a rather unenthusiastic parliament and on the 14th August 1850 it received the Royal Assent as the Public Libraries Act. To this extent the exercise begun by the two men on 24th August 1848 was a success. It might therefore seem pointless to subject the evidence to the kind of scrutiny that we have just applied to some of its French content.

Edwards' first biographer, Thomas Greenwood, argued more or less exactly that, saying "The fact should be noticed here, that the greater comparative accessibility and number of continental public libraries, which Edwards so persistently urges, must have been used as a kind of argumentative lever rather than as a matter of strict fact. It is very extraordinary that the continent should have been found by Edwards to swarm with freely accessible libraries in 1849, while, as a matter of fact, there are hardly any at the present time [1902], save royal and university libraries, which are in many cases by no means open to all"[18]. Greenwood further suggests that attacks on the statistics, such as that mounted by Verificator, did not damage the argument. If by this Greenwood meant that the contention that public libraries could be important contributors to the educational and cultural development of the population was undamaged, he was quite right. However, Edwards and Ewart had, probably wisely, avoided too much attention to this central, but almost unprovable, tenet of the librarian's faith. They had concentrated on international comparison because they felt that the spirit of international emulation had the potential to persuade otherwise sceptical members of parliament to support legislation with their votes. The same sceptics might not have been so easily convinced by a case for public libraries based on arguments from first principles.

What we should ask ourselves is, whether it mattered that Edwards and Ewart avoided tackling the case for public libraries directly and relied on creating a positive mood towards legislation by somewhat dubious use of comparative evidence. There is some reason to believe that it did matter. In the first place, features of the public libraries which were made possible by the 1850 Act bore a certain unfortunate, but hardly surprising, resemblance to the models which had been cited in evidence to the Committee. The Act permitted, but did not compel, towns of more than 10,000 population to provide a public library if local ratepayers consented. The town council was then empowered to levy a small rate of one halfpenny in the pound to pay for the salaries of staff and the premises and upkeep of a library. Significantly this tax income could not be devoted to the purchase of books, which, it was expected, would be donated by the citizenry. This profoundly static and financially limited concept of a public library was gradually modified and improved by subsequent legislation. Nevertheless, it seems reasonable to argue that, by their choice of models, the promoters of the Act had themselves effectively brought about the limitations of the system that parliament approved. The system was, for instance, too like the system of French municipal libraries, in its limited provision for augmentation of the collections, for coincidence.

Because Edwards originally worked from a definition of the public library based almost wholly on the element of public funding he had perhaps been forced to choose examples which embodied that principle, whether those examples were otherwise appropriate or not. If he had placed greater emphasis on the role of the public library in fostering popular reading, he could have turned to British examples such as the subscription and circulating libraries, or the mechanics institutes libraries, which were not usually free, or publicly funded, but did owe their continuing existence to their ability to renew their collections to meet reader demand. If he needed continental examples, the cabinets de lecture, which abounded in France and which were not cited in evidence to the Select Committee, were available for this purpose[19]. All these alternative examples provided a dynamic model for public library service and, if coupled with the idea of public funding, potentially a much more appropriate model than those which Edwards used. This constitutes grounds for suggesting that the painfully slow and difficult growth of the public library movement in Britain during the second half of the century owed much to the way in which Edwards characterised the public library in his evidence to the Select Committee in 1849 and 1850.

In conclusion, it might not be unfair to suggest that risks inherent in the use of international comparison are revealed by this particular case. Antonio Panizzi, librarian of the British Museum and a frequent antagonist of Edwards, suggested quite a different approach when he told the Select Committee "I have no doubt that in this country when the wish for libraries becomes general, and their want is really felt, the people will have libraries for themselves much better than if anybody were to provide them for them before that wish exists and the want is felt. There is a self-governing instinct peculiar to this nation which will lead them on"[20]. One way of reading this is to see Panizzi as calling for libraries matched to expressed need. The risk in using international comparison as a basis for planning library systems is of obtaining systems that relate to quite alien circumstances. Despite this risk, history provides plenty of examples of other instances of the use of the method. Indeed, in a neat reversal of circumstances, the pioneer of modern French libraries, Eugène Morel, turned towards British and American examples to build his case. It would be of great interest to know whether his use of the technique was more judicious and produced happier results.

NOTES

01. *A letter to Benjamin Hawes; being strictures on the Minutes of Evidence taken before the Select Committee on the British Museum*. London, 1836.

02. *Remarks on the paucity of libraries freely open to the public, in the British empire; together with a succinct statistical view of the existing provision of public libraries in the several states of Europe. In a letter to the Rt. Hon. the Earl of Ellesmere*. 2nd enlarged edition. London, for private circulation, 1849. — *See also*: "A statistical view of the principal public libraries in Europe and the United States". *Journal of the Statistical Society of London*, 11, (1848), 250-281.

03. *Quoted in* Munford, W.A. *Edward Edwards, 1812-1886: portrait of a librarian*. London, Library Association, 1963. p. 57.
04. *Remarks on the paucity...* p. 4.
05. *Report from the Select Committee on Public Libraries* minute 10.
06. *Memoirs of libraries*. London, Trubner, 1859. Vol 1, p. 776.
07. *Report from the Select Committee...* p. 36-7.
08. Richter, N. "Public libraries". *Journal of Library History*, 19, (1984), 47-72. p. 50.
09. *op. cit.* p. 51.
10. Comte, H. *Les bibliothèques publiques en France*. Lyon, Presses de l'Ecole Nationale Supérieure des Bibliothèques, 1977. p. 109.
11. Bibolet, F. "La bibliothèque municipale de Troyes". *Revue Française d'Histoire du Livre*, new series 12, (1976), 275-339, p. 296. — On Troyes *see also* Barnett, G.K. *Histoire des bibliothèques publiques en France de la Révolution à 1939*. Paris, Promodis, 1987. pp. 44-7 and 74-5.
12. Bibolet, *op. cit.* p. 296.
13. Bibolet, *op. cit.* p. 311.
14. *Report from the Select Committee...* p. 39.
15. *Ibid.* p. 120.
16. *Ibid.* p. 121.
17. *Ibid.* p. 3.
18. Greenwood, T. *Edward Edwards: the chief pioneer of municipal public libraries*. London, Scott, Greenwood & Co., 1902. p. 99.
19. Parent-Lardeur, F. *Les cabinets de lecture: la lecture publique à Paris sous la Restauration*. Paris, Payot, 1982.
20. *Quoted in* Munford, W.A. *op. cit.* p. 76.

35-READ-2-G

Buch- und Leseforschung, ein Dschungel begrifflicher Verwirrungen

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1. "ZWISCHEN SCYLLA UND CHARYBDIS": Internationale Probleme der Lese- und Buchmarkt-Forschung

Wer sich mit der Medienforschung und hier insbesondere mit der Lese- und Buchmarkt-Forschung beschäftigt und dabei den Blick über die Grenzen des eigenen Landes richtet, der erlebt ein Wechselbad der Gefühle, er bewegt sich zwischen den Emotionen: *himmelhoch jauchzend — zu Tode betrübt*. Die grossen Hoffnungen auf Vergleichsmöglichkeiten schwinden schnell einer tiefen Ernüchterung, ja Resignation. Man fühlt sich an die *babylonische Sprachverwirrung* erinnert, stellt fest, dass die Begriffe identisch sind, aber die Inhalte zu einer amorphen Masse avancieren, die sich als undurchdringbar erweist und ein Vordringen zu den Methoden, das Auswerten der Ergebnisse, den Vergleich, das Lernen aus den Arbeiten der Kollegen aus anderen Ländern verhindert. Aber Babylon herrscht nicht nur in den Begriffs-Definitionen, Babylon manifestiert sich auch in unserem eigenen fremdspralichen Unvermögen. Zum fremdsprachlichen Unvermögen: Hier bin ich direkt betroffen, sehen Sie mir deshalb nach, dass ich deutsch sprechen muss.

Vor diesem Hintergrund wird verständlich, dass seit etwa Ende der fünfziger Jahre auf internationalen Konferenzen und Seminaren eine internationale Bestandsaufnahme zur Buchmarkt-Forschung gefordert wurde, aber kein Kenner der internationalen Szene sich dieser Aufgabe annahm. In Unkenntnis der Dinge, ungeduldig und ohne Verständnis für die Untätigkeit, habe ich 1978 das Medienunternehmen BERTELSMANN von der Notwendigkeit einer internationalen Übersicht zur Buchmarkt-Forschung überzeugen können. Damals war ich Referent für Buchhandelsfragen und Medienforschung bei BERTELSMANN und konnte von 1978 bis 1981 die Eingangs geschilderten Emotionen durchleben. Das Ergebnis der Bestandsaufnahme wurde im Herbst 1981 unter dem Titel *Buch und Lesen International — Berichte und Analysen zum Buchmarkt und zur Buchmarkt-Forschung* vorgelegt und bewegt sich zwischen "Scylla und Charybdis".

Welche Fragen sollten mit dieser Bestandsaufnahme beantwortet werden? Der Griff in die Arbeitsunterlagen des Jahres 1978 gibt die Antwort und zeigt Schwergewichte:

- In welchen Ländern wird Lese- und Buchmarkt-Forschung betrieben?
- Wer und welche Institutionen führten die Studien durch?
- Wie viele Studien wurden in den einzelnen Ländern durchgeführt?
- Welche Untersuchungsziele wurden verfolgt?
- Welche theoretischen Ansätze lagen den Studien zugrunde?
- Welche Methoden wurden angewandt?
- Wie gross waren die Stichproben?

Über 400 Wissenschaftler, Institutionen und Verbände wurden weltweit angeschrieben. In 43 Beiträgen wurde die Situation aus 30 Ländern beschrieben. Und das Ergebnis? Selbstkritisch muss heute festgestellt werden, dass damals der wichtige Aspekt der Begriffs-Definitionen — hierzu gehört auch die Berücksichtigung der politischen Systeme — unberücksichtigt blieb. Die Bedeutung einheitlicher Begriffs-Definitionen wurde unterschätzt. Das Ergebnis war unter anderem die Erkenntnis:

- Unter dem Begriff *Buchmarkt-Forschung* werden so unterschiedliche Aspekte subsumiert wie: amtliche und Verbandsstatistiken, Verkaufsuntersuchungen und Studien im Sinne der empirischen Sozialforschung.
- Vorgegebene — in der europäischen Forschung übliche — Kriterien des Erhebungsbogens waren insbesondere in den sogenannten "Dritte-Welt-Ländern" nicht anwendbar.
- Der Methoden-Standard zeigte deutliche Niveau-Unterschiede oder in Jahren ausgedrückt: in manchen Ländern wurde nach Methoden gearbeitet, die ungefähr 30 Jahre vor dem *Uses-and-Gratifications Approach* lagen.
- Eine Kommunikation zwischen den Forschern der einzelnen Ländern war kaum feststellbar. Dies galt auch für den Austausch von Forschungs-Materialien.
- Für die Lese- und Buchmarkt-Forschung, aber auch für die Medienforschung standen nur geringe oder keine finanziellen Mittel zur Verfügung.
- Die Medienforschung, die von den Rundfunk- und Fernsehanstalten sowie von grossen Zeitschriftenverlagen betrieben wurde, vernachlässigte grösstenteils die Bereiche der Lese- und Buchmarkt-Forschung.
- Manche Länder, obwohl sie über einen methodischen Standard verfügten, waren nicht bereit ihre Forschungsergebnisse preiszugeben.

Diese Bestandsaufnahme war sehr ernüchternd und warf mehr Fragen auf, als sie beantwortete. Zu den grundsätzlichsten Fragen gehörten:

- Warum nimmt der Analphabetismus zu, auch in den Ländern, in denen eine Schulpflicht besteht?
- Warum nimmt das Leseinteresse in vielen Bevölkerungsschichten ab?
- Warum stehen für die Lese- und Buchmarkt-Forschung so wenig Geldmittel zur Verfügung, obwohl die Regierungen, die UNESCO, die Notwendigkeit des Lesens ständig betonen?
- Warum ist die Kommunikation unter den Forschern so unterentwickelt?
- Warum hat man sich bisher nicht auf einen einheitlichen Methoden-Standard — der auch kulturelle und sonstige länderspezifische Eigenheiten berücksichtigt — und auf einheitliche Begriffs-Definitionen einigen können?

Die Beantwortung dieser Fragen ist eher spekulativ, wird kaum über Diagnosen hinausgehen und verlangt fast telepathische Fähigkeiten. Überlassen wir dies lieber den Wahrsagern, die sich ja heute eines Zulaufes von Politikern und Managern erfreuen.

Und wie ist die Situation heute, im Jahr 1989? Auf internationalen Tagungen und Seminarien herrscht weiterhin eine babylonische Begriffs-Verwirrung. Wir verwenden die gleichen Begriffe, reden trefflich aneinander vorbei und merken es fast gar nicht. Wir stellen fest, dass wir kaum voneinander wissen, wir unsere Forschungsergebnisse gegenseitig nicht kennen, nebeneinander herarbeiten und die gleichen Methodenfehler reproduzieren, die andere schon vor uns leidvoll erkannten. Ein einheitlicher Methodenstandard ist weiterhin Zukunftsmusik.

Ich möchte deshalb hier den Versuch unternehmen, die Aspekte herauszuarbeiten, die von uns, den Lese- und Buchmarkt-Forschern, in Zusammenarbeit mit den Medienforschern bewältigt werden können. Aber einen Hinweis bin ich noch schuldig. Wenn wir die Probleme anpacken wollen, dann

benötigen wir Geld. Geld von Politikern und Managern, die wir vom Wert unserer Arbeit überzeugen müssen. Dies ist in der Tat ein steiniger Acker, den es zu bestellen gilt, aber die Arbeit lohnt sich für die Zukunft der Menschen, für die wir letztendlich forschen, lehren und arbeiten.

2. FORSCHUNGSRESSOURCEN KENNEN UND NUTZEN

Noch nie wurde in aller Welt soviel geforscht wie heute. Mit den Forschungsergebnissen lassen sich viele Regal-Kilometer füllen. Die Ergebnisse der forscherischen Tätigkeit, die Methoden, die den Arbeiten zugrunde liegen, der Forschungsansatz, dies alles ist nur einem kleinen Kreis von Eingeweihten bekannt. Doppelgleisiges Arbeiten gehört zum Alltag der empirischen Sozialforschung. Teilweise wird in einer Abgeschiedenheit gearbeitet, die an die Klausuren mittelalterlicher Klöster erinnert. Aus dieser — zugegeben, in schwarz/weiss Manier geschilderten — Situation müssen wir ausbrechen. Forschung ist teuer. Die zu erforschenden Bereiche und Themen sind in fast allen Ländern identisch. Die Forschungs- und Finanz-Ressourcen der einzelnen Länder und der Forschungseinrichtungen müssen deshalb stärker koordiniert und für alle nutzbar gemacht werden. Hier einige Thesen, die zur Verbesserung der Situation beitragen und eine effizientere Forschung ermöglichen:

1. So wie heute schon ein Technologie-Transfer praktiziert wird, sollte auch ein Transfer der Lese- und Buchmarkt-Forschung sowie der Medienforschung stattfinden. Hier bieten sich nationale Schwerpunkt-Bibliotheken an, in denen die Forschungsergebnisse aus allen Ländern gesammelt und möglichst in die jeweiligen Landessprachen übersetzt werden.
2. Regelmässig, etwa alle fünf Jahre, sind die wichtigsten Studien in einem Reader zu veröffentlichen. Ein Schwerpunkt der Veröffentlichung sollte den Methoden gelten.
3. Immer mehr Wissenschafts-Disziplinen beschäftigen sich heute auch mit Teilbereichen der Lese- und Buchmarkt-Forschung. Es ist deshalb zwingend notwendig, dass in der Forschung interdisziplinär gearbeitet wird.
4. Lese- und Buchmarkt-Forschung ist nur ein Teilbereich der Medienforschung. Notwendig ist eine Kooperation der Lese- und Buchmarkt-Forschung mit der Medienforschung. Als sinnvoll erweist sich die Integration von Teilbereichen der Lese- und Buchmarkt-Forschung in die Medienforschung.

Eine Realisierung dieser Thesen ermöglicht den notwendigen Forschungstransfer, eine effiziente Nutzung der Wissenschafts- und Finanz-Ressourcen und versetzt die Forscher in die Lage, sich aktueller Forschungsmethoden zu bedienen.

3. VEREINHEITLICHUNG DER BEGRIFFS-DEFINITIONEN

Die Auswirkungen der unterschiedlichen Begriffsinhalte wurden zu Beginn der Ausführungen am Beispiel des Wortes *Buchmarkt-Forschung* demonstriert. Dieses Beispiel zeigt, dass das Problem sich nicht — wie schon öfters gefordert — mit einem einfachen mehrsprachigen Wörterbuch, einem Dictionnaire, beheben lässt. Für verschiedene Fachbereiche gibt es solche Werke, beispielsweise für das **Verlagswesen oder für den Bibliothekar.**

Für die tägliche Praxis sind diese Werke wichtig und hilfreich. Sie sind eine notwendige Arbeitsgrundlage, genügen aber nicht den Erfordernissen der wissenschaftlichen Arbeit. Mit einem Beispiel soll dies belegt werden.

Das *Wörterbuch des Verlagswesens* bringt als Stichwort 30 den Begriff **antiquarisches Exemplar** mit den Übersetzungen in 19 Sprachen. Unklar bleibt, was hier genau gemeint ist. Ein schon lange vergriffenes Buch, das vielleicht noch bei einem Antiquar erworben werden kann oder verbirgt sich unter diesem Begriff ein Titel, der im sogenannten *Modernen Antiquariat* aus einem **Auflagenrest** — der deutsche Begriff ist *Ramsch* — zum herabgesetzten Preis verkauft wird?

Man kann meinen, dass dies doch ein sehr sekundäres Problem darstellt, aber wie immer steckt hier der Teufel im Detail. Ende der sechziger Jahre erlebte ich mit einer ungenauen Fragestellung bei einem Fragebogen-*Pretest* mein Fiasko. Die Frage war:

"Haben Sie schon mal antiquarische Bücher gekauft und können Sie sich erinnern, wann dies war?" (Es folgten Antwortvorgaben)

Die Pretest-Ergebnisse liessen mich routieren. Etwa 8 Prozent der Befragten hatten antiquarische Bücher gekauft. Keiner Plausibilitätsprüfung hielt dieses Ergebnis stand. Wo lag der Fehler? Ich besuchte einige der Probanden, die besonders viele antiquarische Bücher gekauft hatten und das Problem löste sich. Meine Frage war nicht präzise formuliert. Ich dachte an alte, vergriffene im Antiquariat erworbene Bücher und die Befragten subsumierten unter diesem Begriff den Kauf von *Auflagenresten*.

Dieses Beispiel spricht für sich und zeigt, die Notwendigkeit eines Wörterbuches, in dem die Begriffe erläutert sind. Mit der Annotation der jeweiligen Stichworte, lassen sich dann auch die politisch bedingten Unterschiede bei den Begriffs-Definitionen erfassen.

Realisation und Kosten

Wie aber soll ein solches Vorhaben realisiert werden? Wer bezahlt das Projekt?

Einer allein kann eine solche Aufgabe nicht bewältigen. Hier ist Team-Arbeit gefragt. Ein solche Arbeits-Gruppe muss international und interdisziplinär besetzt sein. Lese- und Buchmarkt-Forscher, Kommunikationswissenschaftler, Medienforscher, Psychologen, Neuropsychologen, Wirtschaftswissenschaftler, Pädagogen, Mathematiker, Statistiker, Freizeitforscher etc. müssen ebenso vertreten sein, wie die Praktiker aus den Bibliotheken, den Verlagen, der Sozialarbeit, der Leseförderung, etc.

Die IFLA kann dies sicherlich nicht allein leisten. Sie sollte das Projekt starten, könnte die Koordination, die Budget- und Terminkontrolle übernehmen. Eine Kooperation mit wissenschaftlichen Instituten, Forschungsgemeinschaften, wissenschaftlichen Verbänden und professionellen Marktforschungsinstituten, den Forschungsabteilungen der Rundfunk- und Fernsehanstalten und internationaler Medienunternehmen ist unabdingbar.

Die Kosten sind sicherlich beträchtlich. Einen Richtwert, der entsprechend hochgerechnet werden muss, gibt der Reader *Buch und Lesen International*. Die Kosten des Readers lagen 1981 bei etwa einer viertel Millionen Mark, die die Unternehmensgruppe BERTELSMANN finanzierte.

Für ein solches Werk, das im Prinzip eine **Forschungs-Enzyklopädie** ist, könnte die Finanzierung so geregelt werden:

1. Zuschüsse der UNESCO.
2. Zuschüsse der nationalen Regierungen.
3. Forschungs-Sponsoring durch Medienunternehmen, Banken, Forschungsgemeinschaften, etc.
4. Erlöse aus dem Verkauf, die erfahrungsgemäss gering ausfallen.
5. Die Kosten für die Mitarbeiter aus den einzelnen Ländern sollten möglichst durch ihre Arbeitgeber oder andere Kostenträger des jeweiligen Landes getragen werden.

Wichtig ist, dies ist bei Forschungsprojekten aber üblich, das vor der Geldbeschaffung eine klare Projektbeschreibung mit einer realistischen Kosten- und Terminkalkulation vorliegt, die auch einer kritischen Prüfung durch die Geldgeber standhält.

Lange Jahre warb eine Mineralölfirma mit dem Slogan:

Es gibt viel zu tun, packen *wir es an*

Nach diesem Motto sollte jetzt gehandelt werden und nicht nach dem, was der Volksmund daraus machte:

Es gibt viel zu tun, fangt *ihr schon mal an*

4. EINBINDUNG IN DIE MEDIENFORSCHUNG

Auch auf diesen Aspekt wurde schon hingewiesen, eine Vertiefung erscheint aber notwendig.

Zur Vorbereitung dieser Arbeit, die als Diskussionsgrundlage zu verstehen ist, habe ich viele Referate, Aufsätze und Bücher gelesen, in denen in den letzten vierzig Jahren sich Autoren mit der Lese- und Buchmarkt-Forschung, mit der Medienforschung, der Leseförderung etc. auseinandersetzten. Dabei stiess ich auch wieder auf den Aufsatz **Buchmarkt-Forschung in Europa** des von mir geschätzten Dr. Wolfgang Strauss, den er 1972 veröffentlichte. Strauss veranlasste Ende der fünfziger Jahre die erste Buchuntersuchung, begründete die Buchmarkt-Forschung in der Bundesrepublik Deutschland, gab unter anderem die **Schriften zur Buchmarkt-Forschung** heraus (insgesamt 26 Bände) und ist sicherlich den älteren Kollegen noch in Erinnerung. Seine Vorschläge haben sich nicht überholt und wurden bisher kaum realisiert. Strauss fasste 1972 sein Resumee in neun Thesen zusammen. Die fünf wichtigsten Thesen sollen hier zitiert werden:

1. Es gilt, heute die Begriffe "Buchmarkt-Forschung", bookmarket-research, Marktforschung klarer zu konturieren.

4. Diese Wissenschaft muss interdisziplinär konzipiert werden. Eine autonome Buchwissenschaft gibt es nicht.
5. Wir benötigen daher in den verschiedenen Ländern übergreifende Institute für Buch- und Verlagswesen.
8. Um die Internationalität der Buchmarkt-Forschung zu garantieren, bedarf es der Erarbeitung gemeinsam anzuwendender Methoden.
9. Die Kooperation im nationalen Rahmen sollte selbstverständlich sein.

Soweit Strauss, dessen 72er Thesen auch heute noch aktuell sind.

In dem schon genannten Reader *Buch und Lesen International* veröffentlichte ich den Beitrag **Zum Stand der Buchmarkt-Forschung**.

Die Ansätze von Strauss wurden darin aufgegriffen und erweitert. Was sind die Merkmale dieses erweiterten Forschungsansatzes? Für mich ist unverzichtbar, dass zukünftig

1. die Lese- und Buchmarkt-Forschung in die Medienforschung integriert wird;
2. der Rezipient als Medien- und Freizeitnutzer mit seinem sozialen Umfeld in die Untersuchungen einbezogen wird;
3. die Untersuchungen, national und international vergleichbar werden, auch als Zeitreihenvergleich;
4. der Rezipient mit seinen Wünschen, Bedürfnissen und Handlungen in den Mittelpunkt der Forschung gerückt wird;
5. neben der quantitativen Forschung die qualitative Forschung vorangetrieben wird.

In den vergangen Jahrzehnten, haben wir doch überwiegend nur "Nasen gezählt", aber die Fragen nach dem **warum** oder **warum nicht** ausgeklammert oder vernachlässigt.

Für diesen Beitrag habe ich zwei Schemata erarbeitet, denen der *Uses-and-Gratifications Approach* zugrunde liegt. Sie könnten als Grundlage für ein Forschungs-Design dienen. Es wurde versucht, die Lese- und Buchmarkt-Forschung als Bestandteil der Medienforschung darzustellen und den Rezipienten darin einzubinden.

Das erste Schaubild zeigt ein **Schema zur Medien-Forschung.** Es berücksichtigt die Faktoren

1. der Rezipient als Medien- und Freizeitnutzer in seinem sozialen Umfeld
2. die Forschungsziele (Rezipient, Kommunikator, Produktion und Distribution)
3. die Untersuchungsverfahren
4. der Rezipient als Nutzer von Produktion und Distribution.

Das zweite Schaubild zeigt ein **Schema der Lese- und Buchmarkt-Forschung**. Grundlage der Schemata war das *publikumszentrierte Modell* der Massenkommunikation. Die Bereiche *Leseförderung* und *Alphabetisierung* wurden aus Gründen der Übersichtlichkeit vernachlässigt.

Uses-and-Gratifications Approach

Im Prinzip ist dieser Forschungsansatz, den der deutsche Kommunikationswissenschaftler Karsten Renckstorf als "publikumszentriertes Modell" bezeichnet, ein Umkehrschluss der Frage: **Wie gehen die Medien mit den Menschen um?** die nun lautet: **Wie gehen die Menschen mit den Medien um?**

Der Forschungsansatz des *Uses-and-Gratifications Approach* wurde von Katz/Gurevitch ihrer bekannten *Israel-Studie* zugrunde gelegt.

Das folgende Schaubild zeigt diesen Forschungsansatz, der in der Bundesrepublik Deutschland erstmals für die Studie **Kommunikationsverhalten und Buch** genutzt — 1978 veröffentlicht — wurde. Auftraggeber war die *Bertelsmann Stiftung*, die Durchführung oblag der *Infratest Medienforschung* in München.

Die wichtigsten Faktoren dieses Ansatzes sind

- die Konzeption des aktiven Publikums;
- das Verständnis von Mediennutzung als soziales Handeln;
- das Verständnis von Medienzuwendung als eine von vielen denkbaren Handlungsalternativen;
- die Reformulierung von Hypothesen der "Medien-Wirkung" in solche des "Medien-Nutzens".

Nach Katz heisst die wesentliche Forschungsfrage:

"Was und zu welchem Nutzen die Menschen mit den Medien machen."

Der Ausgangspunkt publikumsbezogener Forschung ist also im Rezipientenhandeln, dem sozialen Handeln der Zuschauer, der Hörer, der Leser zu sehen.

5. ASPEKTE ZUR LESEFOERDERUNG

Viele Regalwände liessen sich mit der Literatur zu den verschiedensten Aspekten des Lesens füllen. Der Spannungsbogen reicht von *Pro* bis *Contra* Lesen. Manche Autoren singen dem Lesen den Grabgesang, wie Herbert Marshall McLuhan, andere lassen nur das Bildungslesen gelten, wieder andere vertreten die Meinung, dass Lesen Spass machen soll und es gibt intellektuelle Zeitgenossen, die den Analphabeten als zufriedenen Nicht-Leser bezeichnen und von daher jede Leseförderung ablehnen. Die Einstellungen sind geprägt von Unwissen, Arroganz, ideologischen Vorurteilen und einem Bildungsbürgerlichen Denken des 19. Jahrhunderts. Teilweise treffen diese Aussagen — leider — auch auf manche Menschen zu, die sich für die Leseförderung engagieren und damit ihre eigene Arbeit konterkarieren.

Lesen ist, zugegebenermassen, eine schwer erlernbare Kulturtechnik, steht heute in zunehmender Konkurrenz zu den elektronischen Medien und einem wachsenden Freizeitangebot. Die Lesezeit hat in den letzten Jahren, trotz einer Verringerung der Arbeitszeit, nicht zugenommen. In einigen Untersuchungen wird von einer Reduktion der Lesezeit gesprochen. Eine Befragung bei über 30.000 Schweizer Rekruten ergab, dass die Schreib- und Lesefähigkeit der Rekruten abnimmt. Die Zahl der Analphabeten nimmt in den Industrieländern zu. Für die Bundesrepublik Deutschland werden Zahlen zwischen einer halben bis zu drei Millionen Analphabeten genannt. Die angebotenen Alphabetisierungskurse reichen bei uns nicht aus, um die Nachfrage zu befriedigen. Etwa 12.000 erwachsene Menschen lernen derzeit in der Bundesrepublik Deutschland Schreiben und Lesen. Personalchefs deutscher Unternehmen berichten, dass sich ungefähr 40 Prozent unqualifizierte Bewerber melden. Dies sind Menschen, die arbeiten möchten, aber über keine ausreichende Berufsausbildung verfügen. Nur für wenige von ihnen wird sich die Hoffnung auf einen Arbeitsplatz erfüllen, da die meisten, neben der fehlenden Berufsausbildung, auch noch das Handicap einer ausgeprägten Schreib- und Leseschwäche haben.

Was ist das, Lesen?

Die pragmatische Definition des österreichischen Medienforschers Gehmacher, der die Lesefähigkeit in drei Kategorien einteilt, kann hier weiterhelfen.

1. Alphabetismus:

Der Leser kann mindestens 20 bis 30 ganze Wörter ohne Buchstabieren (schwere ausgenommen) in der Minute lesen. Der Leser kann also einfache Texte lesen, ist aber nicht in der Lage das Lesen über einen längeren Zeitraum auszuüben. *Typ*: Boulevard-Zeitungs- und Comicleser.

2. Kurztext-Leser:

Dieser kann etwa 80 Worte eines normalen Textes in der Minute — ungefähr 10 Seiten in der Stunde — lesen. Der Kurzzeit-Leser kann zusammenhängende Texte geringer Länge lesen, hat aber bei komplexen Buchtexten Probleme. *Typ*: Zeitungs-, Zeitschriften, Romanheft-Leser und der Leser von leichter Unterhaltungsliteratur.

3. Buchleser:

Der Buchleser kann mindestens 250 Worte in der Minute — pro Stunde etwa 30 Seiten — eines normalen Textes lesen. Er ist ein Vielleser, der seine Lesegeschwindigkeit der Verständlichkeit des Themas anpasst, verfügt über eine selektive Merkfähigkeit, kann Texte querlesen und den Lesestoff auch über eine längere Lesezeit hinweg aufnehmen. *Typ*: Der echte Buch-, Informations- und Bildungsleser. Er ist der Liebling der Eltern, der Lehrer, der Bibliothekare und Buchhändler.

Auf den dritten Lese-Typ, den Bildungsleser, beschränkt sich im Prinzip das Interesse der für das Buch, für das Lesen Tätigen. Bibliothekare und Buchhändler machen auch hier kaum eine Ausnahme. Im Sinne der Leseförderung ist diese Zuwendung aber leider *Zeitvergeudung*, da dieser Lese-Typ schon des Lesens kundig ist, auch liest und mit bibliothekarischen und buchhändlerischen Arbeitsmitteln (Katalog etc.) umzugehen weiss.

Erfahrene Leseförderer berichten, dass Typ Zwei, der Kurztext-Leser, den Aktivitäten der Leseförderung aufgeschlossen gegenüber steht. Hier sind kurzfristig die grössten Erfolgserlebnisse zu verbuchen, wenn der Spass am Lesen geweckt werden kann. Auch die *Hypothese des Emporlesens* findet bei diesem Leser-Typ ihre Bestätigung. Anfangs liest der Kurzzeit-Leser leichte Unterhaltungsliteratur und hangelt sich im Laufe seiner Leseerfahrung hoch zu Böll, Handke und auch Goethe.

Knochenarbeit ist es, den ersten Typ mit Aktionen der

Leseförderung zu "beglücken". Er schlüpft durch die Fangstricke des Leseförderers und ist nur dann bereit sich umgarnen zu lassen, wenn seine ureigensten Interessengebiete, seine Themen ins Spiel kommen. Ansprechen lässt er sich meistens indirekt, durch Veranstaltungen etc., die seine Interessen tangieren, wenn sie im Buchumfeld stattfinden.

Nutzen für die Praxis

Im Herbst 1977 hatte ich innerhalb von acht Tagen bei Bertelsmann eine Konzeption für die geplante neue Stadtbibliothek in Gütersloh zu erarbeiten. Meine Voraussetzungen dafür waren nicht gerade günstig. In der Studienzeit, ich studierte im Hauptfach Publizistik/Kommunikationswissenschaft und hatte Psychologie und Betriebswirtschaft als Nebenfächer belegt, benutzte auch ich Bibliotheken. In Verbindung mit dem typischen Stichwort der Bertelsmänner *sachkundig machen*, war dies mein bibliothekarischer Wissensstand. Befreundete Bibliothekare und die, die ich kurzfristig kennenlernte, versogten mich mit der notwendigen Literatur und standen für Fragen zur Verfügung. Die Roh-Konzeption wurde pünktlich abgeliefert und anschliessend konnte ich mich dann — der Tag hat ja bekanntlich 24 Stunden — neben meiner eigentlichen Arbeit, intensiv mit dem Thema Bibliotheken beschäftigen. Bibliotheken übten plötzlich eine übergrosse Anziehungskraft auf mich aus. Viele in- und ausländische Büchertempel besuchte ich. Angesprochen haben mich nur wenige, auch wenn es viele interessante Detaillösungen gab. "Verbildet" durch das Studium, "befrachtet" mit dem Wissen aus vielen Medien-, Lese- und Buchstudien suchte ich eine Lösung, die Benutzer- und nicht Medienorientiert war, die das Lesen fördert und nicht verhindert. Intensive Literaturstudien wiesen mir den Weg nach Münster.

Der Direktor der Stadtbibliothek Münster, Dr. Heinz Emunds, ein studierter Psychologe, ging sehr unorthodoxe Wege, um neue Bibliotheks-Benutzer zu gewinnen. Er praktizierte im Prinzip dass, was mir vorschwebte, eine nach den Benutzerinteressen ausgerichtete Bibliothek, die die "Schwellenangst" abbaut und das Lesen fördert. Erreicht hat er dies durch das Modell der *Dreigeteilten Bibliothek*, in der an den Wochenenden auch die Präsenzbestände ausgeliehen werden. Seine Ausleihzahlen lagen deutlich über dem Bibliotheks-Durchschnitt.

Die *Dreigeteilte Bibliothek*

Die folgenden Ausführungen habe ich den Unterlagen entnommen, die seinerzeit von mir für den Architektenwettbewerb, in Abstimmung mit Emunds, erarbeitet wurden.

"Die Öffentliche Bibliothek, die Benutzerinteressen ernst nimmt, muss die primäre Ordnung der Bestände nach eben diesen Benutzerinteressen ausrichten.

Die *Dreigeteilte Bibliothek* unterscheidet sich nicht nur durch den neu hinzugekommenen "Nahbereich" von der konventionellen Bibliothek, sondern auch organisatorisch und strukturell."

Dieses Schema zeigt die drei derzeit bekannten Bibliothekstypen:

- **Einteilige Bibliothek**
- **Zweiteilige Bibliothek**
- **Dreigeteilte Bibliothek**

"Der erste Bereich (der Dreigeteilten Bibliothek) ist der "Fernbereich", der Magazinbereich, in der Regel nicht für den Benutzer zugänglich, sondern nur über den Katalog erschlossen.

Der zweite Bereich ist der "Mittelbereich", der konventionelle Freihandbereich und der eigentliche Mittelpunkt der Bibliothek mit zentraler Lage im Bibliotheksgebäude, zum Verweilen einladend, mit guter Erschliessung durch Kataloge und einer benutzerorientierten Buchaufstellung für Sach- und Fachliteratur und auch die schöne Literatur.

Der dritte Bereich ist der "Nahbereich" — darin unterscheidet sich die *Dreigeteilte Bibliothek* besonders von den hergebrachten Bibliotheken — in der unmittelbaren Eingangszone liegend. Er gilt als "Marktplatz". Die Bestände sind ausschliesslich nach Benutzerinteressen aufgestellt, nicht unbedingt in Regalen, sondern in Ständen, Karussells o.ä. Auf Kataloge wird ganz verzichtet. Hier soll gestöbert werden, Neugier und Leselust geweckt werden. So wird auch auf die übliche Bibliothekssystematik verzichtet, die Bücher werden nach interessensgebieten zusammengestellt.

Bei den Beständen handelt es sich z. B. um Bestseller, Neuerwerbungen, aktuelle Titel und Themen, Krimis sowie andere Literaturgruppen, die nicht über Kataloge vom Benutzer gesucht werden.

Keines der Medien in allen drei Bereichen hat einen festen Standort. Sie können nach Benutzerinteressen und Nachfragen an einen anderen Standort versetzt werden, in einen der anderen Bereiche. Aktualität und Benutzerinteressen sind ausschlaggebend.

Die Kinderbibliothek verzichtet auf den "Nahbereich", kann aber in Trögen oder Ständen Bücher in bestimmten Zonen anbieten im Sinne des "Nahbereiches".

Abgerundet wird das Konzept durch die Berücksichtigung der Benutzerinteressen bei der Anschaffung".

Bei der *Stadtbibliothek Gütersloh GmbH* — Gesellschafter sind die Stadt Gütersloh und die BERTELSMANN STIFTUNG — wurde erstmals ein Bibliotheksbau nach dem Modell der *Dreigeteilten Bibliothek* realisiert. Grundlage waren Erfahrungen und Forschungsergebnisse auf der Basis des *Uses-and-Gratifications Approach*.

Einen Einblick in das vierstöckige Bauwerk (1 Untergeschoss und 3 Obergeschosse) gibt dieser Grundriss des Erdgeschosses.

Mittelpunkt ist das "Lesecafé", dem sich der Nahbereich und der Veranstaltungsraum anschliessen. Der Veranstaltungsraum und ein weiterer Raum im 2. Obergeschoss stehen auch den verschiedenen Gruppen der Stadt zur Verfügung. Zu den Veranstaltungen der Gruppen, beispielsweise Philatelisten oder Modelleisenbahn-Freunde, stellt die Bibliothek ein umfassendes Buchprogramm aus ihren Beständen zusammen und bietet dieses zur Ausleihe an. Durch eine gezielte Presse- und Öffentlichkeitsarbeit werden diese Aktionen der Bevölkerung bekanntgemacht. Über eine gute Berichterstattung in der Presse braucht sich die Stadtbibliothek Güterloh heute nicht mehr zu sorgen.

Und wie hat die Bevölkerung die Bibliothek angenommen? Etwa 45 Prozent haben einen Benutzerausweis. Vor der Eröffnung des neuen Bibliotheksgebäudes, im Mai 1984, waren es etwa 15 Prozent. Die Tendenz ist weiter steigend.

Übrigens, Gütersloh hat rund 80.000 Einwohner. Etwa knapp ein Drittel gehört davon Familien an, von denen mindestens ein Angehöriger bei einer BERTELSMANN-Firma arbeitet. Die Mitarbeiter von BERTELSMANN können in den "Haussortimenten" Bücher erheblich billiger — als im Buchhandel — kaufen.

6. SCHLUSSBEMERKUNG

In diesen Ausführungen wurden einige Probleme der heutigen Lese — und Buchmarkt — Forschung, sowie der Medienforschung angerissen und Lösungsmöglichkeiten angedeutet. Wichtige Aspekte — beispielsweise die Aspekte "Wachsende Wissenskluft", wie man Leser zu Nichtleser erzieht, Beschaffenheit der Medien, Umgang mit Medien, Ausbildung, Bildungswesen etc. — konnten nicht behandelt werden.

Die Anregung zum Aufbau dieses Beitrages erhielt ich beim IFLA Round Table im September 1988 in Warschau. Verschiedene Punkte der Warschauer-Tagung habe ich hier aufgegriffen. Mein Ziel war es, die Notwendigkeit der Forschung, die Notwendigkeit klarer Begriffs-Definitionen zu demonstrieren, damit für die Zukunft eine bessere Kommunikation zwischen den Forschern untereinander und zwischen Forschern und Praktikern möglich ist. Für mich erschien es aber auch wichtig, die Umsetzung von Forschungsergebnissen in die Praxis darzustellen. Bei allem galt es das Leitmotiv zu berücksichtigen: Welche Interessen hat der Leser, welchen Nutzen haben die Medien für den Leser, wie kann das Lesen gefördert werden.

Der Bogen war weit gespannt, aber dies erschien mir im Sinne einer pragmatischen *Buchwissenschaft* und Forschung notwendig.

Ich danke Ihnen für Ihre Aufmerksamkeit und stehe für Ihre Fragen zur Verfügung.

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16-READ-1-F

Sociologie de la lecture et des usages en bibliothèque : quelques recherches récentes en France

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RESUME

Les recherches en sociologie de la lecture et des bibliothèques se sont considérablement développées en France ces dernières années. Certaines études s'intéressent aux visiteurs des nouvelles bibliothèques publiques : elles s'attachent à analyser leurs comportements, leurs motivations et leurs pratiques dans l'espace de la bibliothèque ; elles cherchent à en saisir la logique. D'autres études continuent à s'interroger sur la lecture : elles cherchent à s'approcher de plus en plus de l'acte de lire lui-même, à comprendre les enjeux qu'il représente et comment s'articulent tactiques individuelles et images sociales. D'autres études privilégient une approche plus historique, s'intéressent à l'évolution des mentalités culturelles. Nous sommes héritiers des conceptions des institutions qui au cours des siècles se sont données comme rôle de promouvoir des pratiques et de "normaliser" des conduites. Comment enfin ne pas s'interroger sur l'avenir et sur les conséquences intellectuelles et sociales de l'introduction des nouvelles technologies dans les pratiques de lecture. Vont-elles être source de modifications réelles, de transformations dans l'exercice du lire ?

Les recherches en sociologie de la lecture et des bibliothèques se sont considérablement développées en France ces dernières années. Faire le bilan de ces recherches est un exercice difficile, dans le cadre d'un exposé aussi court, car les terrains, les méthodes et les thèmes des études sont eux-mêmes très divers. Comment jongler, au cours de ces quelques pages, avec cette hétérogénéité ?

Certaines études s'intéressent aux visiteurs des nouvelles bibliothèques publiques : au-delà de la simple description des profils socio-culturels des usagers, elles s'attachent à analyser leurs comportements, leurs motivations et leurs pratiques dans l'espace de la bibliothèque ; elles cherchent à en saisir la logique.

D'autres études continuent à s'interroger sur la lecture, cherchant là aussi à en renouveler les modes d'approche : elles ne se contentent plus de relever, de manière quantitative et statistique, les inégales présences du livre ou les inégales intensités de pratiques, mais cherchent à s'approcher de plus en plus de l'acte de lire lui-même, à comprendre les enjeux qu'il représente pour les uns ou pour les autres, et comment s'articulent, dans ce rapport apparemment solitaire au livre, tactiques individuelles et images sociales, façons de faire pragmatiques et valeurs symboliques.

D'autres études privilégient une approche plus "historique", s'intéressent à l'évolution des mentalités culturelles. Nos conceptions actuelles sur les modes et formes d'une volonté de promotion de la lecture et de partage de l'exercice du lire par le plus grand nombre appartiennent à une histoire. Nous sommes héritiers, quand bien même c'est parfois pour affirmer une volonté de rupture, des conceptions des institutions qui au cours des siècles ont eu en charge ou se sont données comme rôle de promouvoir des pratiques et de "normaliser" des conduites. Plusieurs recherches, portant sur les discours institutionnels sur la lecture ou sur les formes de censure subies ou mises en œuvre par les bibliothèques, vont dans ce sens. C'est aussi l'enjeu de travaux s'intéressant à la profession de bibliothécaire et cherchant à cerner par exemple les diverses conceptions à l'œuvre dans l'exercice du métier.

Comment enfin ne pas s'interroger sur l'avenir et sur les conséquences intellectuelles et sociales de l'introduction des nouvelles technologies dans les pratiques de lecture. Vont-elles être source de modifications réelles, de transformations dans l'exercice du lire ? Assistons-nous à une évolution ou à une révolution ? Et ces bouleversements affectent-ils plutôt l'espace privé de la lecture individuelle ou l'espace public de la bibliothèque où la lecture peut aussi s'exercer ?

C'est dire à quel point il me sera difficile d'aborder autrement que de manière partielle et lacunaire un de ces sujets. Tout au plus puis-je tâcher de signaler certains acquis et surtout certaines questions, certaines béances. Tant il est vrai que plus on s'interroge sur la lecture, et plus le mystère s'épaissit !

I. LES FAIBLES LECTEURS (1)

Alors que la critique littéraire laisse toujours la parole au lecteur expert (celui que les petits lecteurs nomment, justement, le "professionnel" de la lecture), la sociologie s'intéresse, elle, aux lecteurs "ordinaires". Alors que nombre de pays développés s'aperçoivent qu'une part de leur population est handicapée par des lacunes importantes dans le savoir lire et écrire (ce fut la découverte de l'illettrisme), plusieurs études se sont penchées sur les profils des petits lecteurs, en définissant au départ le "petit lecteur" comme celui qui ne lit que quelques livres par an. Ces études ont tout de suite mis en évidence que sous l'appellation faible lecteur se cache en fait une très grande diversité de pratiques, de profils, de trajectoires en matière de lecture. Qu'en est-il des temps et des modes chez ces lecteurs fragiles ? Qu'en est-il des modalités de choix, de l'établissement des préférences, des goûts et des genres privilégiés par ces lecteurs ? Qu'en est-il du rôle des diverses instances de sociabilité autour de la lecture ? Quelle empreinte laissent les prescriptions familiale ou scolaire, pourquoi la bibliothèque est-elle un lieu souvent inconnu ou rejeté ?

Puisqu'il m'est impossible de cerner ici toutes ces questions, arrêtons-nous sur quelques acquis qui sont autant, je le rappelle, de nouvelles obscurités.

Les temps de la lecture

Les enquêtes traditionnelles ont tendance à figer les individus dans un rapport *hic et nunc* avec la lecture, dans un seul type de relations à l'univers de l'écrit. Bien au contraire, ces attitudes varient au cours de la vie : la sortie de l'école, l'entrée dans la vie active, l'expérience du travail ou de la constitution d'une cellule familiale représentent, on le sait, des moments de renégociation (même inconsciente) des pratiques lectorales. Celles-ci ne sont pas immuables. Elles sont mobiles ; non seulement en termes d'intensité de pratiques, mais plus encore en termes de choix, de centres d'intérêt ou de profits de lecture. L'entrée dans la vie professionnelle constitue par exemple bien souvent pour les jeunes travailleurs petits lecteurs, un moment de rupture, d'abandon de lecture ; c'est l'époque où s'éloignent le réseau familial ou plus encore le réseau des autres jeunes, qui constituaient les rares circonstances d'échange de livres et de paroles autour de ces lectures (Nicole Robine).

Les ruptures dans la biographie personnelle ou professionnelle s'accompagnent de redéfinitions de l'horizon culturel de référence, qui peuvent conduire à un rejet ou au contraire à une reprise des pratiques de lecture. Mais cette notion d'évolution est à manier avec précaution : elle est bien plutôt liée à des

horizons culturels, à des valeurs, qu'à une question de disponibilité matérielle, estimée en termes de temps libre. Une idée répandue veut que les petits lecteurs ne lisent pas parce qu'ils n'ont pas le temps de lire. La réalité est autrement complexe. Le temps, pourrait-on dire, n'existe pas. Il existe par contre des temps sociaux, gérés différemment selon les univers culturels et les valeurs des uns et des autres.

Le temps de la lecture chez les petits lecteurs est bien souvent du temps résiduel : lire quand on n'a rien de mieux à faire. "Elle apparaît finalement comme le 'négatif' de l'emploi du temps structuré et planifié de la vie active". "La lecture de livres n'obéit à aucune règle, à aucune politique d'organisation du temps. L'aspect occasionnel et circonstancié de la faible lecture semble plutôt programmer la marginalité du livre par rapport au temps actif du lecteur, à son temps 'positif' de socialisation." (Joëlle Bahloul.) Une lecture par trous, en quelque sorte.

Des lectures qui se méfient d'elles-mêmes

Chez beaucoup de petits lecteurs l'image de leurs propres lectures s'oppose à l'image sociale du livre. L'une est souvent dévalorisée, l'autre au contraire reste auréolée de toute sa valeur symbolique. Ces lecteurs associent alors une forme de dénégation de leurs propres lectures à une intense valorisation d'un monde du livre qui n'est pas le leur. Les petits lecteurs disent d'abord à l'enquêteur : "vous tombez mal, je ne lis pas" ou "chez moi, on ne lisait pas, on travaillait tout le temps", avant que ne reviennent à la mémoire des titres qui peuvent, paradoxalement, avoir profondément marqué et constitué une expérience esthétique et émotionnelle forte : "Bien sûr, j'ai lu 'La porteuse de pain' (succès français de la littérature populaire au début du siècle). 'Qui n'a pas lu cela ? Je n'ai pas pu le lire jusqu'au bout : j'étais trop émotive, je pleurais et ça coulait sur le livre' dit par exemple une retraitée, lectrice rousseauiste de la Belle Epoque.

Dans cette confrontation entre la valeur qu'il accorde à ses choix de lecture et ce qu'il connaît des choix esthétiques "légitimes", le petit lecteur a tendance à dénier à ses lectures une reconnaissance culturelle : "je ne lis pas, moi, je ne lis que des petits romans". "Ce n'est pas moi qui les mets en haut de l'échelle (les bons écrivains), c'est les autres, moi je ne m'y connais pas assez... Il y a des gens plus lettrés que moi pour les classer, moi je ne suis qu'une petite roue" dit un artisan tailleur de 54 ans. "Le fait est... (ce sont) des romans de quatre sous qui n'intéressent personne... C'est pas des romans extraordinaires, c'est pas des romans de grands auteurs. Des fois, ça m'arrive, j'ai des bouquins Harlequin, des petits romans d'amour à l'eau de rose, bon j'en lis beaucoup, mais je n'ai pas l'impression que ça m'a fait faire un boum intellectuellement (...). C'est des petites histoires vraiment banales, toujours pareilles, mais elles sont bien écrites. (...) Quand je lis un livre d'un grand auteur, j'ai l'impression que ça m'a apporté plus", dit encore une femme au foyer.

Les représentations que les petits lecteurs ont de leurs propres lectures sont donc le lieu de l'équivoque et du paradoxe. Alors qu'ils dévalorisent leurs choix et leurs centres d'intérêt, ils ont tendance à valoriser au plus haut degré, la "vraie" lecture, qui ne peut être que celle des autres, des "intellectuels", des "professionnels". Lire est alors non ce qu'ils font ("c'est pas ce qu'on appelle lire"), mais l'exercice auquel s'adonnent ceux qui en ont un usage répété, intensif et culturel.

Monde du texte et monde du lecteur

Mais les pratiques de lecture n'évoluent pas qu'en fonction de circonstances externes et sociales. Elles ont aussi leur propre rythme : et c'est alors la relation que chacun entretient avec le texte qu'il est en train de lire qui va déterminer des réactions d'intérêt, d'affinité, ou au contraire d'abandon et de rejet. Toute lecture, quel que soit son objet et quelle que soit la virtuosité de celui qui la porte, est en effet le lieu d'une confrontation, et le lieu donc d'une négociation, entre "monde du texte" et "monde du lecteur". Le propre du petit lecteur, et plus encore du non-lecteur, ne serait-il pas alors la difficulté ou l'impossibilité à vivre cet "arrachement au monde" que représente toute lecture ?

Particulièrement éclairants et troublants sont par exemple les parcours de lecture de prisonniers ou de retraités, tels qu'ils ont été récemment recueillis et analysés par un chercheur français (Michel Peroni). Tel prisonnier, non lecteur dans son enfance ("dans le passé, je n'ai eu aucun contact avec la lecture"), se met à lire en prison parce que, lourdement condamné, "il fallait à tout prix tenir", "à cette époque là, je n'avais pas d'autre choix que de m'adonner complètement à la lecture". Son parcours aurait réjoui le cœur de bien des bibliothécaires : des "mauvais livres" aux "bons livres", "des histoires de braquage" à Stendhal ou Canetti, de Guy des Cars à Sartre ou Dostoïevski.

Mais la perspective de sortir de prison rend caduques toutes ces lectures, rend inutile ce qui est considéré comme une fuite dans le texte, ou comme la description d'un monde par trop étranger à celui du lecteur : "c'est un genre de bouquin que je ne pourrais plus lire parce que ça ne sert à rien... Pour moi, aujourd'hui, une bonne partie de ces livres que j'ai lus, je les ai lus pour rien. Comme Sartre, Camus, de Beauvoir... c'est les plus connus, alors je les ai retenus, mais j'en ai lu d'autres encore ; ils me servent à rien ces mecs là ! Ils m'ont décrit un monde qui ne m'intéresse pas. Un gars comme Sartre, dans son monde à lui, c'est impossible qu'il réfléchisse pour moi qui suis là tout seul ! Alors, je préfère encore me faire ma propre philosophie, comme ça, du moins, j'accepte mieux la vie comme elle est. Quand je repense aux trucs que j'ai pu lire, j'ai vraiment l'impression d'un vide, d'avoir perdu mon temps."

C'est donc bien l'expérience lectorale elle même qui peut aussi, dans la confrontation du monde du texte avec les besoins et les valeurs du monde du lecteur, conduire à l'abandon et au rejet de certaines lectures, voire de la lecture.

II. LES COMPORTEMENTS DES USAGERS EN BIBLIOTHEQUES PUBLIQUES (2)

L'élargissement des publics lecteurs a, ces dernières années, bouleversé les modalités d'offre, la mise en œuvre des espaces de lecture.

La constitution et le traitement des fonds documentaires, ne peuvent moins que jamais, aller sans une connaissance des publics visés et une réflexion sur les publics réels et la diversité de leurs façons de faire.

La diversité des appropriations des espaces par les publics

Tout espace d'offre en lecture publique est bien en effet le lieu d'une négociation entre des propositions d'usage, mises en œuvre par les concepteurs et les usages effectifs des visiteurs. C'est le moment de la confrontation entre l'usager idéal, implicitement prévu par les professionnels et les usagers effectifs, toujours plus divers et plus inattendus. Et l'une des fonctions de la sociologie est bien de mettre à jour et d'analyser les usages effectifs qui débordent parfois, voire contreviennent aux usages prévus. Le lieu idéal pour observer ces décalages est bien sûr une bibliothèque en accès libre, et plus encore une bibliothèque en consultation sur place, puisque toutes les pratiques, tous les usages ont nécessairement lieu dans l'espace même, dans l'enceinte même de la bibliothèque.

Prenons quelques exemples de cette négociation, que représente toute rencontre entre un projet et ceux auxquels il est destiné. La Bibliothèque Publique d'Information du Centre Pompidou offre à ses usagers un laboratoire de langues où apprendre gratuitement plus de 95 langues différentes. Le succès a été immédiat et important : plus de 600 personnes se pressent chaque jour pour apprendre qui le japonais, qui le maori, qui le créole. Mais la demande se focalisait malgré tout sur 4 ou 5 langues — anglais, français, allemand, espagnol — qui, si elles sont parmi les plus parlées, sont également celles pour lesquelles l'offre extérieure — en termes de méthodes disponibles sur le marché — est la plus abondante. Comment la B.P.I. pouvait-elle tout à la fois répondre à une demande importante et sans doute légitime des usagers et conserver son rôle culturel en proposant et promouvant l'apprentissage d'un nombre plus important et plus varié de langues ? La question s'est posée avec la même intensité à la discothèque où la plupart des places étaient occupées par les amateurs de rock, alors que cet espace propose plus de 13 000 disques appartenant à tous les genres musicaux. Il ne s'agit pas là seulement d'ajuster offre et demande : car cette opposition apparente croise et redouble bien souvent une autre forme d'opposition : entre cultures "légitimes" et cultures "illégitimes", entre pratiques "cultivées" et pratiques "populaires" sur lesquelles des sociologues tels Richard Hoggart ou Pierre Bourdieu ont, depuis plusieurs années, attiré l'attention. Les bibliothèques publiques sont le lieu d'une tension entre des publics et des pratiques diverses qui cohabitent certes, mais qui peuvent aussi représenter des attentes contradictoires.

Le libre accès

Dans les situations de libre accès, la médiation est faculta-

tive : le recours aux catalogues, comme la demande de renseignements aux bibliothécaires n'est, en rien, un préalable à la fréquentation de l'espace. Le rayon reste en fait, le moyen d'accès privilégié par les usagers : 60 % des usagers de la B.P.I. y ont recours exclusivement, préférant ainsi la tactique du furetage à une façon de faire classique et ordonnée ; 19,5 % demandent des renseignements aux bibliothécaires et 23,5 % ont recours aux catalogues informatisés, le catalogue en ligne GEAC ou le CD-ROM LISE.

Plusieurs études récentes se sont attachées à mieux connaître les manières de faire des usagers qui préfèrent bien souvent aller directement dans les rayons que passer par nos catalogues. "Je préfère voir les livres eux-mêmes, aller au rayon est plus rapide", "quand on s'en sort bien, ça va, on perd moins de temps", "je me dirige directement vers les livres dont j'ai besoin. En général, je sais à peu près où ça se trouve" dit l'un. "Je vais toujours au même endroit, là où je pense pouvoir trouver", "je regarde les titres, j'y vais au pif". Autant de témoignages qui indiquent bien qu'à notre ordre, à notre hiérarchie, les usagers préfèrent bien souvent leur sens de l'orientation, préfèrent trouver "quelque chose qui plaît" sans trop de difficulté, plutôt que risquer de "se perdre" ou se sentir obligé d'en passer par une compréhension globale de l'espace de la bibliothèque : "c'est votre métier, pas le mien". Bien souvent, c'est le titre des livres qui fonctionne comme indicateur du contenu du rayon. Le déplacement spatial dans les rayons de la bibliothèque est un véritable parcours dans la connaissance.

L'usage des catalogues en ligne

La B.P.I. propose à ses usagers deux formes d'accès aux catalogues : le système on line GEAC et le CD-ROM LISE. L'observation des modes d'interrogation employés par 150 usagers, des entretiens avec une quinzaine d'entre eux ont permis de pénétrer en profondeur dans les logiques d'usage des visiteurs et de mettre en lumière certains décalages entre les objectifs des concepteurs de systèmes informatiques et les façons de faire des utilisateurs (étude faite par Joëlle Le Marec).

Si l'objet écran-clavier attire d'emblée nombre de visiteurs, cela ne signifie pas qu'il est instantanément identifié ; beaucoup le confondent avec d'autres services présentant la même forme matérielle (écran-clavier) : le Minitel français, une borne d'information sur le Centre Pompidou, un service documentaire plus large.

L'utilisation d'un terminal peut être portée par d'autres motivations que la recherche documentaire : certains y ont recours non pour chercher un document de la bibliothèque, mais pour "se mettre à l'informatique". Ce qui est recherché alors, c'est d'apprendre le plus possible d'opérations, de découvrir le fonctionnement d'un clavier : il s'agit "d'apprivoiser la machine". L'enjeu est généralement ressenti comme important et l'informatique porteuse de fortes attentes.

Ont ensuite été dégagées deux grandes logiques d'usage des terminaux : l'imaginaire du dialogue entre l'homme et le système, et le modèle spatial d'un parcours de consultation. Le visiteur qui obéit à une logique du dialogue pense être dans une situation de conversation avec une machine intelligente qui saura s'adapter à sa demande. Il pense être dans une situation de compréhension mutuelle. Il a donc confiance dans la possibilité qu'a la "machine" de comprendre non le mot mais le sens du/des mots. D'où la colère lorsque la machine, non communicante, fait la sourde oreille ! Le système GEAC par exemple, affiche toujours une réponse à une demande puisque même si aucun des mots indexés ne correspond à celui du visiteur, GEAC affiche la liste des sujets, titres, auteurs alphabétiquement proches. Que la demande soit satisfaite ou non, la réponse est identique, la machine affichant ainsi son absence d'écoute de la demande et laissant l'utilisateur fort désemparé. Désarroi d'autant plus fort que rien ne lui permet de comprendre quand il a commis une erreur et de quel type était celle-ci. L'erreur n'est pas éducative ; elle est sanctionnée par l'échec.

Le visiteur qui obéit à la logique du parcours s'exprime en terme de voyage, de cheminement. Il ressent l'impression de s'enfoncer dans un labyrinthe, dont il n'est pas certain de pouvoir sortir. Il s'éloigne et craint de se perdre. Cette impression est due au phénomène de discontinuité propre aux systèmes informatiques : sur l'écran, "chaque page efface la précédente, propose plusieurs choix possibles et efface tous les autres". Il est alors difficile à l'usager de fixer l'information, de la mémoriser, puisqu'elle s'évanouit au fur et à mesure qu'il avance. Le visiteur lutte contre la perte de contrôle et cherche à contrevenir à la "rupture constante de la continuité".

Dans les systèmes informatisés ou chaque page chasse l'autre "le visiteur doit formuler sa demande sans avoir aucune idée de l'offre". Les adaptations successives et tâtonnantes auxquelles il est contraint sont parfois sources de malentendus : s'il veut parvenir à ses fins, il doit nécessairement expliciter, hiérarchiser et corriger ses erreurs.

C'est donc bien à la rencontre de règles techniques et de représentations sociales sur l'univers de l'informatique que se situent les pratiques des usagers des catalogues en ligne. Et c'est bien sur les conditions et les enjeux de cette rencontre, sur leurs conséquences sur l'appropriation des écrits eux-mêmes, que nous tentons de réfléchir.

III. LES DISCOURS SUR LA LECTURE TENUS PAR LES INSTITUTIONS AU COURS DU 20e SIECLE (3)

Les historiens de la lecture, les sociologues, s'attachent avant tout à tenter de cerner les publics lecteurs, les manières de lire, les usages des textes, les appropriations de l'écrit.

Mais peu d'études se sont chargées jusqu'à présent d'exhumer et d'analyser les discours des institutions qui se sont données comme tâche, en voulant promouvoir la lecture, d'en dicter des usages et d'en guider des modes d'effectuation. Une étude qui paraîtra à l'automne s'est plus particulièrement attachée à analyser les discours de prescription tenus par trois institutions telles que l'église catholique, l'école républicaine, ou les bibliothèques de lecture publique au cours du 20e siècle. Ces discours, ces déclarations abordent tour à tour plusieurs registres : ils disent quels sont les bons livres, ceux qu'il faut lire, et quels sont ceux qui représentent une forme de danger. Ils disent comment lire : beaucoup ou peu, vite ou lentement, donnant des conseils pour une meilleure mémorisation et une meilleure réflexion sur le texte. Ils disent comment la lecture doit être accompagnée par l'instituteur, le professeur, le prêtre, le bibliothécaire. Ils disent quels sont les buts et les fonctions de la lecture : la prière, la méditation, l'instruction, l'information, le divertissement, le plaisir, le travail, l'apprentissage culturel ou l'exercice de communication. Ils cernent des contours, recherchent des alliances, dénoncent des concurrences. Ces discours sont complexes, concordants ou contradictoires et je ne peux ici qu'en donner quelques exemples. Toujours peuvent s'y déceler une volonté de répandre la lecture et les lecteurs, mais aussi une peur, tenace, de l'usage que ces mêmes lecteurs et notamment les plus récemment acquis au savoir-lire, les "nouveaux lecteurs", feront de leurs lectures.

Le regard de ces prescripteurs de lecture fut d'abord étonnement devant le nombre croissant, inhabituel, de lecteurs "ordinaires" : "on lit beaucoup à notre époque. A la campagne, presque tout le monde lit le journal. En ville, tout le monde lit ; les voitures publiques sont remplies de lecteurs" commente par exemple un Bulletin pratique du clergé français en 1913.

Mais à la satisfaction de voir se multiplier les "nouveaux lecteurs" se mêle à la fin du 19ème siècle et au début du nôtre la crainte de les voir utiliser ces savoir-faire fraîchement acquis sur des objets soupçonnables et selon des modes incontrôlables. Du côté de l'église catholique on redoute par exemple la lecture, par les femmes, du roman qui "exalte l'imagination et pervertit l'intelligence", ou par le peuple, de la presse "force colossale mise au service du mal". Chez les pédagogues de la 3ème République est forte aussi la crainte de voir les mauvaises lectures prendre le pas sur les bonnes : "Aujourd'hui, tout le monde lit le journal, il est devenu l'unique aliment intellectuel qui s'offre à des milliers d'êtres doués de raison et avides de s'instruire. Et, quand ils ont parcouru les pleines colonnes de faits divers, médité longuement sur les mille manières dont on peut trahir son pays, voler, assassiner, ou faire argent de leur honneur, leur journée est finie, ils croient avoir rempli un devoir civique : ils sont "au courant"". (*Instructions du Recteur du Pas-de-Calais*, 1886.)

Le danger peut alors venir d'un trop de lecture. Le discours n'est pas encore né qui fait du lecteur rapide et intensif le seul lecteur expert. A l'époque, beaucoup pensent au contraire que "les lectures rapides ne laissent presque jamais rien après elles, tandis que les lectures mesurées et attentives demeurent dans l'entendement... Il faut de la constance et de l'esprit de suite, ne point papillonner de volume en volume, achever les lectures commencées et n'en point mener plusieurs de front". (M. Marotti. *Conférences de pédagogie, manuel à l'usage des élèves-maîtres et des instituteurs*. 1881.) Préférence donc pour un corpus limité, et non recherche d'une multiplicité d'objets de lecture et de compétences à mettre en œuvre.

Lorsque le succès et la banalisation du roman et de la presse rendirent intenables les discours s'opposant à leur lecture, ceux-ci, portés par d'autres courants sociaux et motivés par d'autres craintes, réinvestissent leurs refus sur d'autres écrits : des années 30 aux années 50, ce sont les nouveaux genres, comics américains, bandes dessinées, romans policiers que l'on condamne.

L'éditorial d'une revue pour enfants met en garde : "Ce poison, dont il faut garder tous les enfants de France, leur est présenté sous des couleurs chatoyantes par des journaux illustrés aux histoires sans morale, aux gravures gravéleuses, aux propos maisonnants. Ces journaux pullulent partout et modifient l'âme des enfants de France, qui, trop confiants et souvent ignorants du danger, ouvrent tout grands leur cœur et leur esprit à leur pernicieuse influence."

Longtemps Eglise catholique et école républicaine verront, chacun à leur manière, dans la promotion des bons livres la seule voie pour résister aux "mauvais livres" : "Ce sera par les bons livres que nous moraliserons le peuple ; ce sera par eux que nous chercherons à nous en prendre à son esprit avant de nous en prendre à sa volonté. La victoire passera toujours du côté de la raison et du bon sens."

"Les bons livres nous éloignent du cabaret, nous instruisent de nos devoirs de fils, de frères, d'époux et de pères ; ils nous montrent nos obligations envers les hommes et la patrie. Les bons livres élèvent notre âme vers Celui dont elle est descendue, nous donnent du cœur, des sentiments généreux. Les bons livres conquièrent les peuples à la liberté en les arrachant à l'esclavage et en répandant partout les bienfaits de la civilisation, l'amour des lettres, des sciences et des arts." (Michel Rougier. *Du développement de l'instruction primaire par la bibliothèque scolaire*. 1881.)

Dans les années 1910, des bibliothécaires en voie de constitution comme corps professionnel viendra, semble-t-il, un nouveau discours. La bibliothèque doit instruire certes, mais aussi distraire et informer, aborder les questions actuelles, voire même se procurer les renseignements de toute nature dont on peut avoir besoin." (*Bulletin de l'Association des bibliothécaires français*, 1907). Ici, sans doute, se constituent les discours sur la lecture "utile", souvent inspirés, dit-on, de l'exemple américain et qui veulent aussi faire de la bibliothèque un lieu si familier que l'on pourra "passer aussi facilement à la bibliothèque qu'on va au marché acheter de la viande et des légumes." (Charles Sustrac, *Bulletin de l'ABF*, 1907.)

Discours divers sur les objets de lecture, sur les fonctions du livre, sur les enjeux des apprentissages. Mais de discours sur l'absence de lecteurs, sur la récession du lire, point. Cette rhétorique prend naissance dans l'immédiat après-guerre, lorsqu'il semble à beaucoup que l'écrit n'est pas seulement menacé par son double (le mauvais livre ou la mauvaise presse) mais par de nouveaux supports, qui lui sont radicalement étrangers, ou par de nouveaux loisirs, remettant en cause non seulement le bon usage du lire, mais l'ensemble de son univers de référence : "Il n'y a plus seulement les mauvaises publications à bon marché, mais les spectacles dits sportifs et le cinéma, la radio, la télévision ! Ces ennemis de la culture par le livre, qui reste en définitive la seule personnelle, la seule vraie, lui mènent une lutte non pas seulement ouverte, mais sournoise : ils empiètent dans son champ, ils y étalent leurs procédés." (*Cahiers de la lecture publique*, 1954). Jean Guehenno, écrivain français, propose d'"analyser ce qu'on appelle la crise de la lecture".

Crise de la lecture ! L'expression, soumise à une grande fortune, ne quittera plus le devant de la scène. Dans les années 50 et 60 se mettent en place les principaux registres de cette thématique en même temps que se vulgarisent et se répandent les questions sur l'accès de tous à la lecture, sur la démocratisation dont nous sommes héritiers aujourd'hui.

Telles sont quelques-unes des recherches récentes qui ont été effectuées ces dernières années en France. Il en existe de nombreuses autres. Différentes ou divergentes, complémentaires ou contradictoires, elles disent à quel point la lecture, bien que très étudiée, recèle encore de mystères. Toutes, elles se séparent d'un simple processus d'évaluation qui viserait à mesurer des services rendus, à juger des savoir-faire, à quantifier des compétences. Ces études se situent clairement du côté des usages et des usagers dont les logiques et les imaginaires ne sont jamais un simple miroir de celles que leur proposent les bibliothécaires. Fourmillantes, ces façons de faire ne sont illogiques que par rapport à notre logique de spécialiste. Pour les comprendre, ne nous lassons pas de les observer et de les écouter !...

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3-RTCPE-1-G

Internationales Seminar zur Problematik der Fortbildung der Bibliothekmitarbeiter, Martin, CSSR, Oktober 1988 : ein Bericht.

Horst HOGH, *Martin, CSSR*

O. Einleitung

Es ist immer noch notwendig, über die Problematik der CPE systematisch, d. h. in ihrer ganzen Breite nachzudenken. Wir müssen zu den Fragen der Ziele der CPE, der Abgrenzung des Inhalts in enger Einwirkung auf den Inhalt der Bildung im Schulsystem diskutieren. Die Praxis bestätigt, dass man die CPE nicht als isoliertes Phänomen erachten kann, das beim Antreten der Schulabgänger in den Bibliotheken beginnt, sondern das Bildungsprogramm muss in der CPE vom Inhalt des Schulsystems und von den Anforderungen der praktischen Arbeit in den Bibliotheken ausgehen.

Diese wesentlichen Ausgangspunkte hatten zum Augenmerk die Leitung des Rundtisches (weiter RT) sowie das Fortbildungszentrum der Slowakischen Nationalbibliothek (VVS), als sie sich entschlossen im Oktober 1988 in Martin (SSR) hinsichtlich der CPE im Rahmen der Feiern zweier Jubiläen : 125 Jahre der Konstituierung der Matica slovenská, der Slowakischen Nationalbibliothek, und 10 Jahre der Entstehung eines spezifischen Arbeitsplatzes ein Seminar für die CPE in der Slowakischen Sozialistischen Republik (SSR) zu organisieren.

I. Welche Ziele stellten sich die Organisatoren des Seminars

Für die heimischen Fachleute war es notwendig, 10 Jahre Arbeit der VVS (Die CPE wird für die slowakischen Bibliothekare bereits seit den fünfziger Jahren realisiert, aber ein spezialisierter Arbeitsplatz für konzeptionelle, inhaltliche und organisatorische Orientierung entstand 1978) auszuwerten sowie über die Richtung seines weiteren Wirkungsbereichs nachzudenken. Die ausländischen Teilnehmer konnten sich eingehender mit der CPE in der SSR bekanntmachen, und beide Seiten konnten in Referaten, Diskussionen und unformalen Gesprächen Erfahrungen austauschen und sich bereichern. Für die Organisatoren solcher Unterfangen bietet sich eine grosse Chance,

mit bedeutungsvollen Vertretern der IFLA sowie mit Experten für einen konkreten Bereich zusammenzutreffen.

Als heimische Organisatoren konnten wir hinsichtlich des internationalen Charakters des Seminars die Fragen nicht in der ganzen Reichweite der Problematik, die auf eine Lösung wartet, lösen. Die inhaltliche Orientation war deshalb das Ergebnis eines Kompromisses, und so vereinbarten wir schliesslich sieben Problemkreise, zu denen die in- und ausländischen Experten Referate ausarbeiteten. Es geht um diese Kreise:

1. Gegenseitige Beziehungen des Schulsystems und des Fortbildungssystems
2. Wie spiegelt sich die Entfaltung des Bibliothekswesens in die Lehrpläne der Fortbildungskurse
3. Bildung des Inhaltes zu spezifischen Fortbildungskursen
4. Didaktische Aspekte bei Fortbildungskursen
5. Direktes und indirektes Management der Fortbildung
6. Die Steigerung der Effektivität der CPE Kurse
7. Organisation der CPE Kurse in der Zukunft

Zur Ergänzung der erwähnten Bemerkung führen wir an, dass wir gegenwärtig zu Hause auch über die Problematik der technischen Ausstattung der Bildungszentren, die pädagogische Vorbereitung von externen Lektoren, einbezogen die Einschätzung deren Fähigkeiten, die Problematik der Bildung von nebenberuflichen Bibliothekaren in vielen Landbibliotheken, die Zunahme der Interessiertheit der Direktoren der Bibliotheken am Prozess der CPE deren Mitarbeiter der engeren Umschaltung der Forschung und der CPE und die Editionsgewährleistung der CPE.

Hinsichtlich der kurzen Zeit konnten wir nicht mehr tun, auch wenn es den heimischen Organisatoren leid tat. Sicher hätten die ausländischen Teilnehmer zu den erwähnten Themen viel sagen und raten gekonnt.

Ein wesentliches Begleitmerkmal dieser internationalen Veranstaltungen sind unformale Kontakte und offizielle Treffen und Tagungen der leitenden Persönlichkeiten der IFLA mit den leitenden Mitarbeitern des tschechoslowakischen Bibliothekwesens (auf Niveau des Ministeriums sowie auf Niveau der Direktion der Matica slovenská). Diese Treffen tragen zum Zunehmen des Prestiges des Bibliothekwesens im Lande des Organizatoren bei. Und letzten Endes tragen diese internationalen Veranstaltungen zur gegenseitigen Verständigung, zur Freudschaft zwischen den Völkern im Geiste neuer Trende, deren Zeugen wir in letzter Zeit sind, bei.

Diese internationalen Veranstaltungen nehmen leider wegen der bestehenden Visaprobleme, der Kompliziertheit des Geldumtausches und wegen langfristigen administrativen Erledigung lange Zeit in Anspruch.

Abgesehen von diesen "politisch-administrativen" Fragen erfordert auch die Festlegung eines geeigneten Termins die Auswahl der Teilnehmer und Vortragenden gewisse Zeit.

Die Konferenz der IFLA 1988 in Australien spielte sicher auch bei der Planung einer weiteren Reise von nichteuropäischen potentionellen Interessenten ihre Rolle. Auch so erachten wir die Teilnahme von 5 nichteuropäischen Teilnehmern (USA, Kanada) unter der Gesamtzahl von 16 ausländischen Teilnehmern als Erfolg.

Nach Vereinbarung zwischen der Leitung des RT CPE und des VVS erforderten wir, dass diejenigen, die sich am Seminar beteiligen wollten auf Kosten der Organisatoren ein Referat zu einem der festgelegten Themen ausarbeiten und vortragen sollten oder dass sie sich auf andere Art aktiv an der Vorbereitung und dem Verlauf des Seminars beteiligen sollten. Diese Erwartung der Organisatoren wurde erfüllt, sogar übersteigert, denn mehrere Seminarteilnehmer waren bereit, auch zu weiteren Fragen mit tschechoslowakischen Bibliothekaren zu diskutieren (z. B. beteiligte sich J.R. Fang/USA an der Diskussion zur Problematik der Konservierung und des Schutzes von Druckerzeugnissen, P. Kaegbein/NSR diskutierte zur Problematik der Forschung von historischen Bibliotheken und alten wertvollen Drucken, H.P. Geh - Präsident der IFLA führte Gespräche mit leitenden Mitarbeitern des Ministeriums für Kultur der SSR, die ungarische Delegation von Hochschullehrern des Bibliothekwesens diskutierte mit tschechoslowakischen Kollegen).

Alle angemeldeten Referate der ausländischen Teilnehmer wurden im voraus der Arbeitsgruppe (P. Kaegbein, B. Miller) übergegeben, die diese hinsichtlich der Hauptziele des Seminars begutachteten.

Die Referate der Mehrheit der ausländischen Teilnehmer sowie auch einige wichtige Referate von inländischen Teilnehmern waren im voraus abgegeben worden (einige nur in Form eines Abstraktes). Die inländischen Teilnehmer waren zahlreich vertreten — Leiter der Katheder für Bibliothekwesen aus Bratislava und Prag, Lehrer der Bibliothekar-Mittelschule, Vertreter von wissenschaftlichen Bibliotheken der SSR, die Mitarbeiter der Bezirksbibliotheken, die Direktoren der Kreisbibliotheken, die Redakteure zweier slowakischer Fachzeitschriften (Ilatel' und Knižnice a vedecké informácie), der Leiter des Fortbildungszentrums in Prag sowie ausgewählte interne und externe Lektoren, die aktiv das Bildungsprogramm realisieren.

II. Der Verlauf des Seminars

Das ganze Programm verlief nach einem im voraus vereinbarten Plan, was jedoch nicht automatisch bedeutet, dass dies gut sein musste. Wir möchten auf einige Mängel hinweisen, damit sie zukünftige Organisatoren umgehen können.

Für ensgesamt 7 festgelegte Themenkreise wurden im voraus 16 Referate vereinbart, insgesamt waren es jedoch letzten Endes 23, denn die ungarischen und polnischen Kollegen schickten die Referate nicht im voraus ein, sondern brachten sie mit.

Verfolgend den Inhalt der Referate zu den einzelnen Kreisen, erachten wir als bedeutungsvoll die Gedanken, die namentlich im Eröffnunsreferat von Dr. H.P. Geh, Prof. B. Stone/USA, Prof. J. Kábrt/SSR beinhaltet waren, dass die CPE ständig auf der Basis der pragradualen Schulbildung gebaut wird, daraus hervorwächst oder mit ihr einen abgeschlossenen Komplex bildet. Beide Bestandteile hangen eng miteinander zusammen, aber sie lassen sich nicht gegenseitig voneinander ersetzen. Auch die Verantwortung der Bibliothekarschulen kann nicht mit dem Übergehen des Studenten in die Praxis — in die Bibliothek — enden. Die Schulen müssen den Studenten die Gedanken über die Notwendigkeit der lebenslänglichen Bildung sowie über die Notwendigkeit, sich ein eigenes System der ständigen Fortbildung enzueignen, einimpfen. Die Schulen müssen ständig ihre Lehrpläne mit dem Bedarf der Praxis konfrontieren, anregen, Änderungen einzuführen und auf diese reagieren. Vornweg zu sein, im Vorsprung vor der Praxis und in diese Richtung ständig theoretische und Forschungsaktivität entfalten. Nach den Worten von B. Miller/Kanada müssen die Bibliothekarschulen ihre Absolventen in breiterem Massstab vorbereiten, ausgewogen in der Theorie und der Praxis, und diese sollen sich erst im Prozess der Praxis, in CPE-Kursen spezialisieren.

Im Rahmen des zweiten Themas traten mit Referaten B. Stone/USA und H. Hogh/SSR auf, und diese analysierten mehrere Strategien hinsichtlich des Suchens effektiver Methoden der Weiterbildung Erwachsener - beispielsweise die Ausnutzung des Einzelstudiums. Es wurde auch auf einige weitere Möglichkeiten und Ziele hingewiesen, die mittels der CPE erfüllt werden müssen - die Antizipationsfunktion, die Erziehung zu einer harmonisch entwickelten Persönlichkeit eines erwachsenen Menschen sowie die Fähigkeit der Autoregulation des Selbststudiums.

Im dritten Thema befanden sich mehrere Referate zum Inhalt von spezifischen Kursen, wie beispielsweise zur Konservierung und zum Schutz von Druckerzeugnissen als Unterrichtsgegenstand im Simons College/Boston, von J.R. Fang, im Bereich der schönen Literatur als Bestandteil der ästhetischen Erziehung, von S. Kolivoško/SSR.

Die Verstärkung des Unterrichts von bibliographischen und Recherchenmethoden als Folgeerscheinung des Vordringens der Automatisation in die bibliothekarisch-informatorische Praxis - Autor T. Szepesváry/Ö. Lorand Universität in Budapest sowie weitere Referate heimischer Autoren (Z. Musutová, E. Vel'asová).

Die didaktischen Aspekte der CPE waren Gegenstand des Referats der vierten Gruppe, die M. Konigová von der Karlsuniversität in Prag einleitete. M. Pálvolgyi/Szombathely Ungarn legte ein Modell des Unterrichts, der im Schulunterricht sowie auch bei CPE-Kursen geltend gemacht wird, vor. Von derselben Schule stammte auch ein weiteres Referat, das sich auf die Vorbereitung von Schulbibliothekaren orientierte — Autor G. Tóth. Mehrere Teilnehmer traten in der Diskussion zu diesem Thema auf. Ihre Vorschläge sing Gegenstand des Studiums der heimischen fachlichen Arbeitsstätten und werden bei der Vorbereitung von Unterrichtstexten ausgenutzt.

Die Problematik der Leitung der Bildung bildete das fünfte Thema, das Ian M. Johnson, Aberystwyth/Wales eröffnete. Er legte in seinem Referat vieljährige (und erfolgreiche) Erfahrungen sowie auch erfolgreiche Methoden aus ganz Grossbritannien vor.

Ein Versuchsexperiment im Department of Librarianship and Information Studies, Newcastle upon Tyne Polytechnic/Grossbritanien, dessen Ziel eine garantierte individuelle (innere) Motivation für weitere CPE-Kurse sein sollte, präsentierte E. Blackie. Zu diesem Thema sprach auch M. Fratriová/SSR.

Die Steigerung der Effektivität der CPE-Kurse beinhaltete das 6. Thema. Dies eröffnete ein interessantes Referat von M. Kent Mayfield, Medical Library Association, Chicago/USA. Mit den Schlussfolgerungen des Autors, die vier Strategien für die CPE-Kurse für Erwachsene "Self-Directed Learning", Synergogy", Competency-Referenced Learning System und Transfer of-Training" ausgliederten, stimmen wir auch unseren Erfahrungen nach überein. Zu diesem Thema sprach auch A. árska/SSR.

Die letzte siebte Themengruppe bildeten Referate zur Problematik der Organisationsstruktur der Bildung in einigen Ländern (C. Ruby, Sacramento/USA am Beispiel von Nikaragua, M. Brykczynska/Polen, J. Lewicki/Polen, J. Sodomková, Prag und H. Hogh/Martin in der SSR.

III. Ergebnisse (positive und negative Seiten)

Die Organisatoren dieser Veranstaltung hatten insgesamt für die Tagung 2 ganze Tage und 2 halbe Tage zur Verfügung. Weitere zwei halbe Tage standen einer internen Tagung der Leitung des RT CPE zur Verfügung.

Der sorgsam vorbereitete Zeitplan für die Referate und die Diskussion wurde jedoch besonders aus folgenden Gründen nicht eingehalten:

- Man ging davon aus, dass jeder sein Referat in Englisch oder in der heimischen Sprache halten wird (es wurde eine Simultativübersetzung gewährleistet). In Wirklichkeit verlor man Zeit mit Übersetzen aus dem Polnisch und Deutsch in die heimische Sprache und daraus ins Englisch, und umgekehrt.
- Nicht alle Referenten hielten die festgelegte Zeit, 30', für ihr Referat ein (besonders die heimischen).
- Die Diskussion zu einigen Themen (Fragen der Didaktik, Effektivität der Bildung) dauerte länger als man voraussetzte, und stellenweise überschritt sie den Rahmen des Programmes.
- Die Gesemtzahl der Referate erwies sich als überdimensiert, man arbeitete fast ohne Reserven. Die Pausen zur Erfrischung wurden nur schwer eingehalten, was nicht gut wirkte und vor allem nicht zur notwendigen Atmosphäre für unformale Gespräche unter den Teilnehmern beitrug.
- Die im voraus vorbereiteten (und teilweise distributierten) Referate wurden den Teilnehmern zum Teil in ihr Land geschickt. Einige Teilnehmer verliessen sich jedoch auf eine Möglichkeit der schnellen Vervielfältigung am Ort. Dieses Vorgehen ist nicht gut. Einerseits kann man sich nicht in Ruhe mit dem Referat im voraus vertraut machen, und andererseits wegen Mangel an technischen Einrichtungen kann es, Schwierigkeiten geben.
- Vom fachlichen Aspekt aus war es ein Mangel, dass einige (besonders heimische) Referate am Ende keine Bibliographie aufwiesen. Teilweise beseitigten wir diesen Mangel bei deren Publikation im Sammelband vom Seminar.

Als Positives erachten wir:

- Die Möglichkeit des Treffens, des Erfahrungsaustausches, eine reiche Diskussion, die Herausgabe der Referate in Buchform für die Mitglieder der IFLA.
- Gute Schlussfolgerungen aus dem Seminar, die in den einzelnen Ländern geltend gemacht werden müssen.
- Das Gesellschaftsprogramm trug zur Verbesserung der Atmosphäre und zum Kennenlernen neuer Spezifika bei.

Die einheimischen Teilnehmer nahmen auch (ausser dem Rahmen der offiziellen Schlussfolgerungen) ihre Schlussfolgerungen entgegen. Sie stimmen mit allen offiziellen Schlussfolgerungen überein und wünschen sich, dass solche Treffen öfters stattfinden sollen, und dass daran (besonders falls sie in einem der SSR nahgelegenen Staat stattfinden) mehr Teilnehmer aus der SSR als bisher teilnehmen können.

5-RTCPE-2-E

MASTERING ACCESS : THE BIRMINGHAM MSc IN INFORMATION MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT

Given changes in demography and the increasing pressures affecting mature workers seeking access to Higher Education, new and more flexible client-oriented modes of access to Masters level education need to be explored by Higher Educational providers.

The paper describes some of the steps being taken in the Faculty of Computing and Information Studies at Birmingham Polytechnic to offer a new Masters programme in Information Management via short-course modules which can each be taken separately as part of an informal personal development programme, or accumulated to complete a fully accredited MSc.

Birmingham Polytechnic is a major provider of full time and part-time education in the U.K.

Located at the centre of England, in the very heartland of the first Industrial Revolution, it offers courses and programmes which span the whole spectrum of Higher Education provision, from certificate level courses right up to Masters and Doctorate level.

Its part-time provision is a major part of its educational mission, and it is second only to the Open University in the number and the variety of student places available to study in this way.

Naturally, within this mission there is strong and growing commitment to continuing professional education via short courses, conferences, seminars and a wide variety of novel and ingenious modes of access, to support the re-skilling and retraining of mature adults who live in the second biggest conurbation in the country.

The West Midlands region is also one of the great "rust bowls" of the U.K. in that it is painfully wrestling with the economic and social challenges that inevitably accompany emergence from a declining, heavy industrial economy, into a successful, specialist and light industrial, business tourist and service economy.

Large numbers of mature adults in the West Midland region are now entering information/knowledge based occupations, where a decade ago they would have entered manufacturing and industrial related occupations.

Many of these new occupations are still not very well defined in terms of job boundaries and content, and employers are witnessing the gradual emergence of a new hierarchy of information handlers, from those involved in simple, routine processing/data creation functions, to those who analyse and re-package raw information to aid decision making, right up to senior information managers involved in designing and implementing total information systems.

The tremendous range of job titles advertised to cover these new information functions clearly indicates the confusion among employers as to :

(a) The kind of skills that they are really looking for. For instance many of the requirements noted in these job descriptions would be well served by graduates of Library and Information Studies programmes, but the employer would never think of these as a possible source of recruits.

(b) The kind of job that they actually want done.

In order to serve these emerging markets a new academic grouping was set up at Birmingham in 1986.

Under the "umbrella" of a new Faculty of Computing and Information Studies, the Department of Computing, the Department of Librarianship and Information Studies, and later in 1988, the Department of English and Communication Studies were brought together within one resource and planning unit.

The aim of the new grouping was to provide a clear window of opportunity for each of the departments to cooperate together in addressing both regional and national needs arising out of the convergence of technology, information, and communications media.

All the departments offered full-time undergraduate programmes, and within the faculty, students could also study a wide range of part-time courses.

The challenge facing the Dean and his colleagues at this time, and indeed still being faced today, was how to make the "convergence" of these disciplines a reality.

How to harness the great potential for synthesis and synergy among the constituent departments in a truly integrated way, and in combinations which enabled the delivery of exciting educational programmes that would appeal, both to potential students and to employers, and which were clearly something greater than just the sum their individual parts.

This exploration is of course still going on, and it will be three or four years yet before the true value of this unique academic grouping can be evaluated.

One major step towards some integration and the sharing of ideas was taken in the summer of 1986, with the formation of a working group, made up of academic staff from all the departments within the Faculty, plus two staff from other areas of the Polytechnic, namely Operations Research and Management, to examine the feasability of offering a faculty based Masters programme in Information Management.

Their brief was:

1. To explore the elements that should be included in a masters programme that purported to address the issues facing future "Information Managers". This is not, as yet, as well defined discipline, and there are, and I suspect for some time to come there will continue to be, considerable differences between the programmes with this title offered by different institutions. Academics in different places are creating their own definitions, and this is most noticeable in the variations between the "core" elements that they offer, and by the themes or subject areas that they exclude. This plurality is not necessarily a bad thing during the early life-cycle of a discipline, but it can confuse potential students and employers who tend to look for a high degree of certainty in the kind of educational experience and preparation offered by programmes with the same name.
2. To seek to design a programme that was accessible to mature, working people, who desired further formal, accredited educational programmes, but who would have difficulty leaving work to study full time. The group was to examine ingenious modes of access (IMA's), that would facilitate the delivery of the programme at times, and in places that would most suit potential students.
3. To achieve both these objectives in a cost-effective and efficient way that made the optimum use of available resources.

The students for this programme would come from the working world, from a wide variety of information or knowledge-based occupations. They may be senior managers who have worked their way through a company with few, if any paper qualifications, or graduates with just two or three years of working experience.

In today's competitive working environment many people are looking for opportunities to improve their "marketability" as employees and professionals, either for speedier progression in their current employment or to help them prepare for a completely new career change.

Paradoxically, hand-in-hand with this fluid, continuing education approach to skill and employment change, comes a new conservatism in seeking access to educational options and choices. In the late 1980's people are more cautious, the conventional, full-time, twelve month masters programme, requiring them to either bravely terminate their current employment, or leave it temporarily for a year, (a disorientating and sometimes disruptive experience), is not something that they want to risk. They see themselves as "clients" and they expect the educational "services" that they subscribe to, to be orientated around their needs and to take cognisance of the kind of time-envelopes that they, or their employers will allow them to, have available.

Traditional part-time courses of the day release or evening only type, that may take three or four years to complete, are often not attractive to these "fast trackers". They want something a little more flexible, preferably something which they can negotiate their way through at a pace which they, rather than the institution, sets *[incomplete sentence in original text]*.

They are also likely to be highly selective about the kind of learning experiences which they chose.

In traditional course menus there is always a part of the syllabus which does not inspire potential students as much as the rest. For most students these one-path courses will have their high and low points and these variations will be directly related to the students very personal map of previous learning experiences and to their new, heightened expectations.

This traditional one-path programme may suit most people ADEQUATELY, very few PERFECTLY. At Birmingham we want to reverse this PERFECT/ADEQUATE ratio and, as far as possible, eliminate disapointment from the client map.

A course which has the flexibility to match an individuals needs will inevitably provide a richer and more fulfilling experience, and the Birmingham Masters in Information management offers a high level of flexibility in two main areas:

COURSE STRUCTURE.

The course is structured as a series of modules, each of which belongs to one of four major subject areas which we have defined as embracing the essential components of Information Management. Each module carries a number of credits which the student accumulates until they reach the amount required for the degree, although there is nothing to prevent a student from taking further modules if they wish to broaden their knowledge. A small number of core modules are mandatory but the majority require no prerequisites and allow the student to track their own path through the wide menu of modules available.

This reverses the conventional British practice of a substantial compulsory core with the lesser optional elements "tagged on". Each individuals pathway will be planned through a process of careful negotiation and discussion, between students and tutors, to select a track which will both meet the student's needs and provide a coherent and rigorous learning experience. Students could choose to balance their track evenly across the range of modules, or they could orientate around one or two core areas, (this could be particularly attractive to a student following a specific career path in their place of work).

ACCESS TO THE COURSE:

Assessment of prior experiential learning.

Many potential students are lost to Masters level higher education because they feel unqualified in terms of their academic track record.

Most commonly this means that they do not have the usually required first degree, the traditional standard bearer for admission onto Masters courses. They may however be extremely well qualified in terms of their actual working experience, which although not represented on a diploma or certificate is a major, personal asset which, given the right approach, can be assessed. Students wishing to study on the Birmingham course can choose to put forward such experience forward as their qualification for entry.

The assessment of experience as a substitute or supplement to academic qualifications for admission to courses is not new to British higher education, but it is the exception rather than the rule. On British undergraduate courses, for example, such cases are often referred to as "special admissions". We are seeking to normalise this mode of access in order to recognise the tremendous potential for individual development that this hidden "personal" resource represents. A potential still largely ignored by the limpit-like attachment of British higher education to formal, documented entry qualifications.

Flexible recruitment.

On most degree courses each cohort of students start and finish the course at the same time within a strictly defined academic year. We intend to operate without this constraint, the Birmingham modules will run as a continuous rolling programme. Students will be able to enrol and begin their period of study whenever they like. Recruitment to the course

will be a continuous process, once a student has been accepted onto the course, they can begin their programme.

Flexible module design.

Each module will operate as a short course.

The length of each module will vary from, for example, one-day courses to two week residential courses. Most modules will run at least twice a year, and sometimes we will be able to offer a choice of timescales. For example, a module could be offered both as a seven day-day residential course and a one-day-a-week course running over a longer period. Our market research suggests that employers of potential students would find it easier to release people for short, concentrated periods of time, hence the short-course structure. Some students may prefer an alternative, more protracted timescale either for practical reasons or because it is more suited to their pace of learning. The Birmingham approach allows considerable flexibility and choice and puts us in gear to consider other types of module design in response to market demand.

Flexible Course timescale.

Breaking away from the conventional academic year also means that our students can choose how long they wish to take studying for their degree. It is likely that this will vary between one, (it is possible to complete the course in one year) and five years. We recognise that each individual has a unique set of practical, day-to-day constraints on their time. For exemple people in full-time employment may not want their modules to clash with busy periods or important events at work, and although this may mean opting for a longer period of study it can be offset against the advantage of maintaining a significant presence at work.

Besides flexibility and accessibility, "responsiveness" is another of our key words.

Although the Information Management programme has been initiated and developed in the Faculty of Computing and Information Studies, and can clearly draw on the considerable experience and knowledge of its teaching and research staff, approximately half of the module tutors are from other Faculties and Departments in the Polytechnic. Staff from the areas of management, business, finance and health sciences contribute significantly to the course. Their involvement extends far beyond the traditional service teaching role to include active participation in course development and student assessment and recruitment.

Such an interdisciplinary team significantly strengthens our ability to identify and respond to appropriate trends and developments, ensuring that our programme remains vigorous and relevant, and most all, it starts to put the client clearly in the driving seat for an individual educational journey which they have played a major part in negotiating.

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THE IMPORTANCE OF BASIC TRAINING IN MARKETING FOR LIBRARIANS AND INFORMATION PROFESSIONALS

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by

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THE IMPORTANCE OF BASIC TRAINING IN MARKETING FOR LIBRARIANS/INFORMATION PROFESSIONALS

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Université de Montréal

I do not wish to present the traditional group of definitions at the beginning of this paper, but it seems wise to recall that the modern concept of marketing, especially since the Second World War, is much broader than the concept of advertising with which it is often confused. Guy Serraf, in his "Dictionnaire moderne de marketing has expressed the essence of the idea: "A coherent system with three solid bases: research, strategy, and action. It means to identify the clientele to be ahead of them, to meet and get to know them, and to master the changes and developments in the marketplace." (1) Much more that simply advertising, marketing is in fact a philosophy of management with a host of tools and techniques which permits the manager to rationalize and maximize the interchange between an organization and its clients.(Figure 1)

There is, therefore, no question that marketing applies to libraries and information services. At least ten years ago, Paul Wasserman, whose reputation is well known in the field of management of libraries and information services , wrote: "Now, to the extent that information science has come to perceive the client rather than collection zeal as the central analytical focus, the marketing framework takes on dramatically heightened significance." (2) Since then, the great amount published on the subject in professional

journals demonstrates eloquently the continued preoccupation of librarians and information scientists with marketing.

As for the application of marketing in various social, economic and political contexts, let me cite two examples which show how universal marketing has become. First, Philip Kotler, the unquestioned specialist in marketing, has just published a Russian translation in Moscow of his "Principles of Marketing Management"; secondly there is a fairly recent work on the application of marketing in developing countries (4)

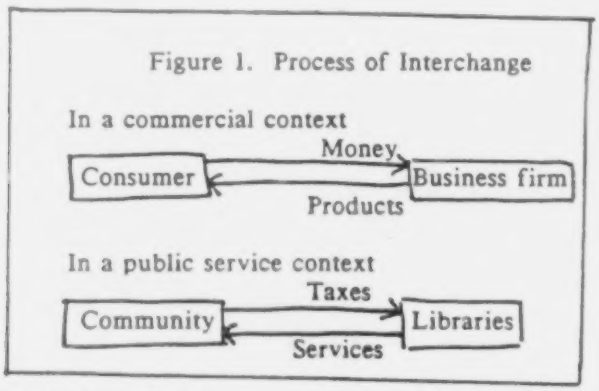

Figure 1. Process of Interchange

The objective of the paper, however, is to analyse the teaching of marketing in schools of library and information science. The teaching of marketing seems already pretty well established in the education of librarians and information scientists at least in the francophone and anglophone countries which we know best.

In the francophone countries we have for several years had courses in marketing in several schools, notably l'Ecole nationale supérieure des bibliothèques in France and l'Ecole des bibliothécaires de Genève in Switzerland where there have been official courses for about three years. There have also been seminars at l'Ecole des bibliothécaires, archivistes et documentalistes de Dakar in Senegal and

l'Ecole des sciences de l'information de Rabat in Morocco. This modest experience allows us to state that the marketing approach is important not only for those responsible for education but is equally applicable in all contexts, provided it is adapted to fit each special situation.

In anglophone schools, courses in marketing of libraries and information services are widespread. For North America a summary of 49 schools shows that 11 schools (22.5%) had a course on marketing or a related subject (public relations, advertising, etc.) and that there are many more which include marketing in other courses (e.g. management). In addition, two textbooks on marketing of libraries and information services have been recently been published in the United States; this proves once more the strength of this subject in anglophone schools. (5)

In England we know that courses on marketing of libraries and information services already exist, especially at Sheffield. Apparently this subject is also current in Australia. Mari Davis affirms that three quarters of the schools offer a course or part of a course in marketing. (6)

Some people ask if courses in marketing should be offered in library schools or if those interested should not turn to the business schools for this training. The fact is that in most business schools marketing is taught largely as a function of "products". Marketing libraries and information services, however, is above all marketing of "services", that is to say, marketing intangible products which requires quite a different technique. All the specialists agree today that marketing of services has its own rules and its own difficulties. One

does not market insurance as one markets yoghurt. The application of training acquired in the context of "products" can become difficult in the context of "services". Furthermore, to the particularity of service organization we must add that of non-profit organization: most librarians and information scientists operate in a context in which the notions of price and value are quite different from that in the commercial context. In a specialized course conceived especially for librarians and information scientists, all these ideas can be adequately discussed. This is why we strongly recommend that schools develop their own courses in marketing.

This is, moreover, the solution proposed in the publications of UNESCO: A modular curriculum in information studies and Principes directeurs pour l'enseignement du marketing aux bibliothécaires, documentalistes et archivistes. (7) They consider that marketing of libraries and information services are specialized enough to justify special courses in their basic programmes of education. They even recommend in these two publications that the schools of library and information science make marketing principles an obligatory subject for all students. Some schools, notably l'Ecole nationale supérieure des bibliothèques in France have already put this recommendation into practice.

The question of whether marketing should be treated as a separate course is secondary. It is obviously preferable to have in the curriculum an autonomous course in marketing, but marketing can also be taught within a required course in management or in a course dealing with users and clienteles.

The origin of courses in marketing in programmes of

information science seems to come from a preoccupation in recent years of the schools with users and non-users. This is the case in l'Ecole de bibliotheconomie et des sciences de l'information of l'Universite de Montreal where the programme was completely revised in 1979 with the user as a central theme. The entire curriculum was thought out as a function of the user with a required programme in the first year and an optional specialization or concentration on the same subject in the second year. At the beginning courses on the user were not popular with students. In fact, the idea of the user was handled in too theoretical a manner, using a sociological approach. The students, preoccupied with more mundane ideas (indexing, cataloguing, collection development, information processing, etc.) did not see the point of the course. The specialized course on users was rarely taken by students. When the marketing approach was introduced, the effect was radically to increase the interest of the students. Presented with the marketing approach, the idea of the user, the clientele, the study of the information environment became more significant for the students. They could then grasp the dynamic between the library and its clients, because they could see the importance of satisfying users' needs as well as how this could be done thanks to modern management methods.

The content of a course on marketing in a school of library and information science depends on its objectives. If one intends to train specialists in marketing of library and information services, an extensive course is necessary with several hours of teaching. A basic course would require 45 hours, to which should be added 90 hours of reading, group work, etc. Such a course would cover all aspects of

marketing of libraries including market research, and presentations on various types of users. Even with this, students will not emerge as specialists; a second advanced course would be necessary for this, if not a third.

If one aims only to make students aware of marketing, and I believe it is essential at least to achieve this level with all students, 12 or 15 hours may be enough. One would be content simply to explain the basic ideas and key concepts of marketing (marketing mix, segmentation, targets, market position, etc.) to discuss strategy, to present a marketing plan, and of course to talk about marketing communication (advertising, public relations, etc.) with illustrations to support the ideas. This last is very stimulating for students.

In conclusion, we must say that the schools may not have the final choice about whether or not to teach marketing to their students. As Kotler said at a conference in Montreal, we will soon arrive at the golden age of marketing. "The whole world will call upon it; profit making organizations, not-for-profit organizations, zoos, hospitals, museums. In fact it will become a dominant mind set which is already widespread." In this context I cannot see how libraries and other information services can escape.

IFLA GENERAL CONFERENCE, PARIS

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Section: LIBRARY THEORY AND RESEARCH

Round Table: RESEARCH ON READING

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RESEARCH ON READING AND BOOKS: A JUNGLE OF CONFUSING TERMS

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Research on Reading and Books, A Jungle of Confusing Terms

by

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Federal Republic of Germany

Translated by Katja Lehmann

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ABSTRACT

RESEARCH ON READING AND BOOKS: A JUNGLE OF CONFUSING TERMS

Konrad Teckentrup

Reading researchers have often limited their concerns to questions of behaviour and ignored structural and political constraints. They have acheived little standardisation of terms or methods e.g. the meaning and significance of secondhand books seems quite different in various countries. Researchers should aim for greater convergence and integrate their work with investigations in other media. They should also be more concerned with the practical consequences of their work, e.g. to assist illiterates or in building new libraries and the writer reports how the publisher Bertelsmann became collaboratively involved in the design of the Gutersloh Public Library in the Federal Republic of Germany.

Research on reading and books, a jungle of confusing terms

1) 'Between Scylla and Charybdis'
2) How to know and use research resources
3) Standardisation of terms
4) Integration into media research
5) Aspects concerning reading aid
6) Concluding remarks
7) Notes

A basis for discussion

This lecture shall be given on the occasion of the

IFLA Round Table on Research in Reading

on 22nd August 1989 in Paris

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The spoken word shall apply.

1) 'Between Scylla and Charybdis'

International problems in the research on reading and the book market

Those who are concerned with media research, and with research on reading and the book market in particular, and who also look beyond their own country, those people will experience helter-skelter emotions: they will be up one minute and down the next. Those who hoped to find an opportunity to compare, soon have to realise that they have to drop these hopes. What they discover seems to be something like a Babel of languages. It turns out that the terms are identical but their meanings develop into an amorphous mass that proves to be impenetrable. An approach to the methods, the evaluation of the results, comparison, learning from the works of the foreign colleagues is being prevented. Babylon, however, does not only exist in the definition of terms but also in our own incompetence of foreign languages. Let us take this incompetence in foreign languages as an example: I am directly affected and I hope that you will forgive me for having to speak in German.

Against this background, it is therefore comprehensible that an international stock-taking of the research on the book market has been called for on conferences and seminars since the 50s - but no expert in the international scene would attack this problem. Ignorant of the facts, impatient and with no understanding for this idleness, I managed in 1978 to convince the media group BERTELSMANN of the necessity for an international survey of the research on the book market. At that time, I have been a consultant for matters of book trade and media research to BERTELSMANN and between 1978 and 1981 I had the chance to experience the above-mentioned emotions. In the autumn of 1981, the results of our stock-taking were presented under the title

Transparent Foil No. 1:

Book and Reading International
- Comments and Analyses on the Book Market and on the Book-Market Research

These results are somewhere between 'Scylla and Charybdis'.

Which questions were to be answered by the stock-taking? The look into the 1978 working papers gives the answer and reveals the emphases:

- in which countries is research on reading and books conducted?
- who and which institutions performed these studies?
- how many studies were implemented in the individual countries?
- what were the supposed aims of the research?
- which theoretical approach formed the basis for these studies?
- which methods were applied?
- what size were the samples taken?

We wrote to more than 400 academics, institutions and associations worldwide. 43 articles described the situation in 30 countries. And what were the results? Today we have to realise in a self-critical manner, that at that time the most important aspect of the term-definitions had not been taken into account - the political systems were not taken into consideration. The importance of standardised term-definitions was underestimated. One of the results was the knowledge of the following:

- aspects as varied as the following are subsumed to the term research on the book market: official statistics of associations, sales surveys and studies in the sense of the empirical social research.

- fixed criteria of the questionnaire - as used in the European research - were not applicable to the so-called 'Third World Countries'.

- the standard of methods had apparent differences in levels, or in other words: in some countries, methods were applied that originally were used about 30 years before the Uses-and-Gratification Approach.

- communication between the researchers in the various countries hardly existed. This also applied to the interchange of research materials.

- financial means for the research on reading and the book-market as well as for media research were either small or non-existant.

- media research, as conducted by TV and radio stations as well as by big magazine publishers, mostly lacked the areas of research on reading and the book market.

- some countries were not willing to reveal their research results despite the availability of a methodical standard.

This stock-taking was very sobering in a way and it raised more questions at a time than it could answer. Here are some of the principal questions:

- why does illiteracy increase, even in countries with compulsory school attendance?

- why does the interest in reading decrease in many classes of society?

- why are there so few financial means available for the research on reading and the book market while governments and the UNESCO permanently emphazise the importance of reading?

- why is the intercommunication between the researchers so underdeveloped?

- why has it not yet been possible to agree upon standardised methods - considering cultural as well as other particularities of the specific countries - and upon standardised term-definitions?

The answers to these questions would be rather speculative and will hardly go beyond diagnoses. Furthermore, telepathic faculties would nearly be required. We'd better leave that to the fortune tellers who are very popular among politicians and managers these days.

And what is the situation today, in 1989? The Babel of languages still prevails at international conferences and seminars. We use the same terms, excellently talk at cross-purposes and hardly ever recognise it. We realise that we do not know the others very well, that no one knows the research result of the others, that narrowsightedly we work on the same track, reproducing the same methodic errors, that others have already made before us. Standardised methods still are pie in the sky.

I would therefore like to make an attempt to produce those aspects that could be managed by us, the reading and book-market researchers, in collaboration with the media researchers. But I still owe you a remark: if we are going to tackle these problems, then we will require money. Money from politicians and managers whom we have to convince of the value of our work. This is in fact a hard piece of work. But if we can manage it, this will be very valuable for the future of mankind. And eventually it is for mankind that we do all this, researching, teaching and working.

2. How to know and use research resources

Never before has there been as much research in the world as today. You can fill huge shelves with research results. The outcomes of research work, the methods on which a piece of work is based, all this is only known to a small group of initiated. Double-track work is everyday life in the empirical social studies. Sometimes work is performed in a seclusion reminiscent of the enclosures in medieval monasteries. We have to break away from this environment which I admittedly described very pessimistically. Research work is expensive. The areas and subjects to be studied are identical in virtually every country. The resources for research and finance of each individual country must therefore be better coordinated and made available for everyone. Here are some theses that could contribute to improving the situation and that could enable a more efficient research:

1) A transfer such as today's technology transfer should take place in the research on reading and the book market as well as in the media research.
National specialised libraries are an obvious place for the compilation of research results from all countries and possibly for their translation into the corresponding national languages.

2) The most important studies should regularly be published in a reader, about every five years.
One main emphasis of these publications should be put on the methods applied.

3) Nowadays, more and more academic disciplines are concerned with parts of the research on reading and the book market.
It is therefore indispensible to perform the research work interdisciplinarily.

4) Research on reading and the book market is just a part of media research.
Cooperation is necessary between the research on reading and the book market and media research. The integration of some areas of the research on reading and the book market into media research proved to be very valuable.

The realisation of these theses will make for the necessary research transfer, an efficient exploitation of scientific and financial resources. It will also enable the researchers to use up-to-date research methods.

3. Standardisation of term-definitions

The impacts of various meanings were initially demonstrated with the word research on the book market. This example shows, that the problem cannot be solved by means of a simple multilingual dictionary. These books are available for various specific fields, such as

Transparent Foil No. 2: **publishing**

Transparent Foil No. 3: **the librarian**

These books are important and useful for the everyday life. They are basic tools but do not meet the requirements of academic work. I want to prove this with the help of one example.

Keyword no. 30 of the dictionary for the publishing sector is

Transparent Foil No. 4: **antiquarisches Exemplar**
(please note that the German word 'antiquarisch' can either mean antiquarian or second-hand. Consequently, 'antiquarisches Exemplar' either is an antiquarian or a second-hand copy)

with its corresponding translation into 19 languages. It is not clear what exactly it means. Is it a book that has long been out of print and perhaps is available at an antiquarian? Or does this term stand for a title that stems from a

Transparent
Foil No. 5: **rest edition**

and that is sold at a reduced price in a second-hand bookshop? The German word for these cheaply sold books is 'Ramsch', which means trash.

You could argue that we are dealing with a rather secondary problem, but as always, its real importance can only be seen at second look. In the end of the 60s, I experienced a complete failure just because of an imprecise question on a pretest questionnaire. The question was:

> 'Have you ever bought antiquarian books?
> If yes, do you remember when it was?'
> (there followed some proposals for possible answers)

The pretest results made me rush around like a mad thing. About 8% of the people asked had bought antiquarian books. This result could not pass any plausibility test. Where was the error? I went to see some of the test-persons that had bought a considerable number of 'antiquarian' books - and the problem was solved. My question was imprecise. While I thought of old, out-of-print books that were bought at an antiquarian, the test persons connected the term 'antiquarian' with rest editions.

This example does not require any further explanation and shows the necessity for a dictionary that describes terms and expressions. By means of the annotation of the corresponding keywords, the policy-related differences of the term-definitions can also be included.

Feasibility and Costs

But how can such a plan be realised? Who would pay for this project?

One man alone cannot cope with this task. Team work is required. The cast of such a working group should be international and interdisciplinary. Reading and book researchers, communication scientists, media researchers, psychologists, neuropsychologists, economists, educational scientists, mathematicians, statisticians, leisure researchers, etc. should be represented as well as experts from libraries, publishing houses, social service, reading aid, etc.

The IFLA alone surely cannot afford to do it. They should initiate the project and could assume the coordination as well as the budget and time survey. Cooperation is indispensible with academic institutions, research associations, academic

federations and professional market-research institutes, the research departments of the radio and TV stations and those of international media enterprises.

The costs are probably considerable. The reader Book and Reading International states a nominal figure which should be correspondingly projected. In 1981, the costs of the reader were at about a quarter of a million Deutschmark which was financed by the BERTELSMANN group.
Such a reader, which in principle is a **research encyclopedia**, could be financed as follows:

1) by UNESCO subsidies;

2) by subsidies from national governments;

3) by research sponsoring through media companies, banks, research federations, etc.;

4) by revenues from sales which normally turn out to be quite low;

5) the costs for the collaborators from the individual countries should possibly be borne by their employers or other financing bodies of the corresponding country.

It is very important - but it is the usual way in the case of research projects - that prior to the procurement of money, a clear specification of the project is presented. This specification should include a realistic calculation of costs and time. It should be able to withstand a critical scrutiny by the financial backers.

For many years, an oil company advertised with the slogan:

There is much to do - let's do it

Work should be started now according to this motto and not as suggested by the modified version:

There is much to do - why don't you start with it?

4. Integration into media research

I have already mentioned this aspect but I think that it needs further consideration. For the preparation for this lecture, which should serve as a basis for discussion, I have read numerous projects, essays, books of authors who have worked on the problems of the research on reading and the book market, media research and reading aid, for the past 40 years. At that

occasion, I happened to find again the following essay:

The European Research on the Book-Market

published in 1972 and written by Dr Wolfang Strauss whose work I admire. In the end of the 50s, Strauss initiated the first book survey, founded the research on the book market in the Federal Republic of Germany and published, inter alia, the

Papers on the Research of the Book-Market

(all in all 26 volumes). The older collegues among us will surely remember his work. His proposals are still valid but have hardly been realised up to now. In 1972, Strauss summarised his résumé into nine theses and I am now going to cite the five most important ones:

1) We now have to give a clearer outline of the terms 'research on the book market, bookmarket research, market research'.

4) This field of science needs to be designed inter-disciplinarily. An autonomous science of books does not exist.

5) We do therefore require comprehensive institutes for the book and publishing sector in the individual countries.

8) Commonly applicable methods shall be elaborated in order to ensure the international nature of the bookmarket research.

9) Cooperation in the national context should be self-evident.

So much to be said about Strauss, whose 1972 theses are still up to date.

In the above-mentioned reader Book and Reading International, I published an article with the title:

Article on the State of the Bookmarket Research

In this article I took up and developed Strauss' approaches. What are the features of this extended research approach? In my opinion, it is indispensible to start with the following:

1) the research on reading and the book market shall become part of the media research;

2) the recipient as a user of media and leisure as well as his social environment shall be integrated into research.

3) the surveys shall become nationally and internationally comparable, also with regard to the comparison of time slots;

4) the recipient and his wishes, requirements and actions shall be moved into the centre of research;

5) qualitative research should be pushed alongside with quantitative research.

Within the last few decades, we have not done much more than 'counting noses' but we have neglected or omitted the questions about

why or **why not**?

For this purpose I have prepared two diagrams which are based on the Uses-and-Gratifications Approach. They could serve as a basis for a research pattern. There were attempts to present the research on reading and the book market as a part of media research by integrating the recipient.

The first diagram shows a

Transparent Foils Nos. 6: **scheme on**
+ 6.1: **media research**

and it includes the following factors:

1) the recipient as a user of media and leisure facilities in his social environment,

2) the research objectives (recipient, communicator, production and distribution),

3) the research method,

4) the recipient as a user of production and distribution.

The second diagram shows a

Transparent Foils Nos. 7: **scheme on the**
+ 7.1: **research on reading and the book market**

The diagrams are based on the audience-centred model of mass communication. The areas of reading aid and programmes against illiteracy were neglected in order to obtain clearer diagrams.

The Uses-and-Gratifications Approach

Principally, this research approach - which the German communicationist Karsten Renckstorf called an 'audience-centred model' - is a reverse conclusion of the question:

How does the media treat people?

which now is:

How do people treat the media?

The 'Israel-Study' of Katz/Gurevitsch was based on the Uses-and-Gratifications Approach.

The following diagram shows this research approach which in Germany was first used for the study

Transparent
Foil
Nos. 8:
+ 8.1: **Communication Behaviour and the Book**

which was published in 1978. This study was ordered by the BERTELSMANN Foundation and it was implemented by the media research institute Infratest Medienforschung in Munich.

The most important factors of this approach are:

- the conception of the active audience;
- the understanding of the use of media as a social activity;
- the understanding of turning to the media as one of the many possible alternative activities;
- the rewording of hypotheses that fall under 'the effects of media' into such that fall under 'media usage'.

According to Katz, the essential research question is:

'What are people doing with the media and why are they doing this?'

Consequently, the acts of the recipients, the social behaviour of the spectators, listeners and readers are to be considered as the starting point of the audience-related research.

5. Aspects on reading aid

Many shelves could be filled with literature on all aspects of reading. The range goes from contra reading to pro reading. Some authors, such as Marshall McLuhan, believe that reading is no longer relevant, others only accept reading for education. Again others share the opinion that reading should be fun. And last but not least, there are some intellectual contemporaries who describe illiterates as contented non-readers, and therefore reject any kind of reading aid. These attitudes are marked by ignorance, arrogance, ideological prejudices and a way of thinking of the educated classes of the 19th century. In some cases, these statements - unfortunately - also apply to people who are engaged in reading aid and who therefore undermine their own work.

I would admit that reading is a cultural technique that is very difficult to acquire. It is more and more competing with the electronic media and an increasing choice in leisure activities. Despite the shortage of working hours, the time spent for reading has not increased. Some reports state a reduction of reading time. A survey among more than 30,000 Swiss recruits showed that the writing and reading capacity of the recruits is decreasing. The number of illiterates is increasing in the industrialised countries. In Germany, the number of illiterates is said to be somewhere between 500,000 and 3 million people. The courses offered for illiterates do not satisfy the demand. For the time being, about 12,000 German adults learn reading and writing. Personnel managers of German companies report that the number of unqualified applicants is about 40%. These are people who would like to work but do not have the sufficient professional training. Only very few of them will get a job, since the major part does not only lack professional training but also have the handicap of a profound weakness in reading and writing.

What does the word 'reading' mean?

The pragmatic definition given by the Austrian media researcher Gehmacher is helpful. He divides the reader's capability into three categories.

1) Literacy

The reader is able to read a minimum of 20-30 whole words per minute (with the exception of difficult words) without the need to spell them. He is also able to read simple texts, but he is not in the position to read for a longer period of time.
Type: Reader of popular dailies and comics.

2) The reader of short texts

He is able to read about 80 words of a normal text in a minute. This corresponds to about 10 pages per hour. The reader of short texts can read coherent short-length texts but he has difficulties with complex book texts.
Type: Reader of newspapers, magazines, Mills & Boons novels and of light fiction.

3) Reader of books

He is able to read a minimum of 250 words per minute - about 30 pages per hour - in the case of a normal text. He reads a lot and adapts his reading speed to the comprehensibility of the subject; he possesses a selective memory, is able to skim texts and to grasp the reading material over an extended period of time.
Type: the true reader of books, reader for information and educational purposes. He is the pet of parents, teachers, librarians and book traders.

The interests of those who promote books and reading, are virtually limited to the third type of reader, the reader for education. In this case, librarians and book traders are no exeption from the rule. According to the reading aid, this effort is unfortunately a waste of time, since this type of reader already has a knowledge of reading, he also reads and he knows how to work with the material of a librarian or a book-trader (catalogues, etc.).

Experienced reading promoters report that type no. 2, the reader of short texts, is likely to take advantage of the help offered by them. In this case the best feeling of success can be achieved within a short time, i.e. if the reader starts to enjoy reading. The hypothesis of 'reading one's way up' is also confirmed by this type of reader. The short-term reader initially reads light fiction and in the course of his reading experience, he climbs up to Boell, Handke and even Goethe.

It is hard work for the reading promoters to make the first type 'happy'. He escapes the nets of the reading promoter and is only prepared to accept help when his own best interests are concerned. The approach towards him can be made in an indirect way, e.g. with events, etc. that take place in the context of books that touch his interests.

The Use for Practice

In the autumn of 1977, BERTELSMANN ordered me to prepare within 8 days a conception for the newly planned city library in Guetersloh. My prerequisites for this purpose were not the best: during my studies - my main subject was journalism/communication studies, and psychology and business management were my subsidiary subjects - I also frequented libraries. In connection with the BERTELSMANN slogan to inform oneself, this was my librarian background. Librarians who were friends of mine and those whom I came to know within a short while, supplied me with the necessary literature and were willing to answer my questions. I handed in the draft conception on time and then - within the only available 24 hours of a day - besides my actual work, I could concentrate on libraries. Suddenly, libraries attracted me very strongly. I visited a number of national and foreign 'book temples'. I only liked a few of them, although I found many interesting details. 'Miseducated' through my studies and 'loaded' with the knowledge I gained from numerous studies on media, reading and books, I looked for a user-oriented solution rather than a media-oriented solution. A solution that promotes reading rather than hindering it. Intensive literature studies directed me to Muenster.

The director of the city library of Muenster was Dr. Heinz Emunds, an educated psychologist, who strode very unorthodox paths in order to attract new library users. He principally did what I planned to do. He ran a library geared to the interests of the user. This library was built to diminish the 'fear of entering' and to promote reading. Emunds had achieved this through the tripartition of the library. At weekends, books can even be borrowed from the reference library. His lending figures lay clearly above average.

The tripartite library

I obtained the following information from papers which I initially prepared, in agreement with Emunds, for a competition of architects:

"The public library, which is aware of the user interests, gears the primary stock order towards the above-mentioned user interests.
The tripartite library does not only distinguish itself from conventional libraries with regard to the newly established 'immediate sector', but also from the organisational and structural point of view."

Transparent
Foil No. 9: This diagram shows the three currently known library types:

- **the one-piece library**
- **the two-piece library**
- **the tripartite library**

"The first area (of the tripartite library) is the 'distance sector', the field of magazines that are normally not accessible to the user, but that can only be obtained through the catalogue.

The second area is the 'mediate sector', the conventional open-shelf area and the actual heart of the library in the centre of the library building, comfortable, well developed by means of catalogues and a user-oriented bibliography for non-fiction, specialist literature and for fiction and poetry.

The third area is the 'immediate sector' - and with this feature, the tripartite library differs particularly from conventional libraries - which is in the immediate entrance area. It is known as a 'market place'. The stocks are displayed exclusively in accordance with the user interests. Stands, carousels, etc. can be found rather than shelves. Catalogues do not exist at all. In this environment, the user is invited to rummage through the stands; the atmosphere creates curiosity and interest in reading. The usual library system has been omitted, books are arranged in fields of interest. The stock consists of e.g. bestsellers, new acquisitions, current titles and subjects, thrillers as well as other groups of literature which the user does not look for by means of a catalogue.

None of the media in the three areas has a fixed place. They can be 'removed' to one of the other locations in accordance with user interest and demand. Topicality and user interests are the decisive factors.

The children's library does not have an 'immediate sector', but in certain areas it can offer books in large containers and on stands, just as in the 'immediate sector'.

The whole concept is rounded up by taking into consideration the interests of the user when acquiring new books."

The shareholders of the city library of Guetersloh (Stadt-bibliothek Guetersloh GmbH) are the city of Guetersloh and the BERTELSMANN Foundation. With this library, a library building in accordance with the model of the tripartite library has for the first time been realised. This project was based on the experience and the research results gained on the basis of the Uses-and-Gratifications Approach.

The layout of the ground floor gives an impression of the whole 4-storey building (one basement and three upper floors).

Transparent
Foil No. 10:

The 'Lesecafé' (reading café) is the heart of the library with the immediate sector and the meeting hall attached to it. The meeting hall as well as another room on the second floor are available for different groups of the city. Whenever there is an event with one of these groups, e.g. the philatelists or the friends of model railways, the library staff compiles a comprehensive range of books from their stocks and offers them for lending. These events are announced to the public by means of well-aimed press and public relations work. Today, the city library of Guetersloh no longer needs to worry about good publicity in the press.

And how did the public react? About 45% of the citizens of Guetersloh possess a library card. Before the opening of the new library building in May 1984, only 15% had a card. The trend is still upward.

By the way, Guetersloh has about 80,000 inhabitants. About one third of them belong to families with at least one relative working for one of the BERTELSMANN companies. The BERTELSMANN employees can buy books of the company stocks at a considerably lower price than in a bookshop.

6. Concluding Remarks

My report touches on some problems of today's research on reading and the book market as well as media research and it outlines some possible solutions. Important aspects, such as the aspect of a 'growing gap in knowledge', how to transform readers into non-readers, the nature of the media, dealing with the media, education and training, the education system, etc., had to be omitted.

I obtained the incentive for the structure of this report at the occasion of the IFLA Round Table in Warsaw in September 1988. I have taken up some issues from the Warsaw conference. It was my aim to show the necessity of research, the necessity for clear term-definitions in order to enable better intercommunication among researchers and between researchers and practitioners. But I also saw the importance of putting into practice the results of research. And in all these issues I had to keep in mind the leitmotif: what are the interests of the reader, in what way does the reader profit from the media, and how can reading be promoted?

This is a wide range of subjects, but I considered them to be necessary with regard to pragmatical book studies and research.

Thank you very much for your kind attention. Should there be any questions I would be glad to answer them.

IFLA GENERAL CONFERENCE, PARIS

Division: EDUCATION AND RESEARCH

Section: LIBRARY THEORY AND RESEARCH

Round Table: RESEARCH ON READING

1985

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SOCIOLOGY OF READING AND USE OF THE LIBRARY

Martine Poulain

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ABSTRACT

SOCIOLOGY OF READING AND USE OF THE LIBRARY

Martine Poulain

This paper draws attention to new directions in thinking about book reading and its connection with libraries in France. It is pointed out past studies have emphasised regular readers and members. More needs to be known about casual readers, their behaviour and self-image. Serving them creates new tasks for libraries. Will they be attracted by new formats, e.g. computers? Can libraries encourage them by more interesting processes of discovery? Such considerations will require libraries to change their practices and presents a dilemma on future functions.

SOCIOLOGY OF READING AND USE OF LIBRARY : SOME RECENT STUDIES DONE IN FRANCE

Studies in the sociology of reading and libraries have considerably developed in France over the last years. To make the appraisal of these studies, in the frame of such a short article, is a difficult task because these subjects' fields, methods and themes are so diverse. How to deal, in such a limited number of pages, with that heterogeneity is a difficult issue.

Some studies aim at analysing readers of new public libraries : further than a simple description of users' socio-cultural profile, they try to analyse and understand the logic of their behaviour, their motivations and their practices in libraries.

Other studies analyse reading, trying also to up-date methods of research, analysing not only - quantitatively and statistically - the frequency of a book's presence or the intensity of a practice, but also trying to get closer to the act itself, to understand what is at stake in it for one or another person, and how individual tactics, social images, pragmatic behaviour and symbolic values articulate.

Some other studies favour a more 'historical' approach, and are interested in the evolution of cultural mentalities. Our present conceptions of the forms of a will to promote reading and to share the exercise of a book belong to history. We have inherited, even if it is sometimes to emphasize our desire for a break, conceptions of institutions which have had through the centuries a role of promoting practices and 'normalising' behaviours. Several studies, on instititutional precepts about reading or libraries' censorship, go along these lines. The challange here is the research on the analysis of the profession of librarian and stemming from this the analysis of the different conceptions of the profession.

How, then, not to ponder on the future and social consequences of the introduction of new technologies in reading practices ? Will they be a source of real modification and transformation of the practice of reading ? Are we witnessing an evolution or a revolution ? And will these changes affect the private space of individual reading or rather more the public space of libraries ?

One can understand how partially and uncompletely I will answer these questions. The most I can do is to point out some facts, some questions and some gaps. Since the more you ponder on reading, the bigger the mystery becomes.

I. THE CASUAL READER

Whilst literary criticism is concerned with the experienced reader (the one which the casual reader calls 'professional' reader), sociology is concerned with the casual reader. While a number of developed countries realise that a part of their population is handicaped by important gaps in the knowledge of reading and writing (this is the discovery of illiteracy), several researchers have studied the profile of the casual reader, defining from the start the 'casual reader' as the one who reads a few books per year. These studies have immediately shown that behind the label of 'casual reader' are various practices, profiles and backgrounds. What about the preferences,

tastes and choices of these readers? What about the role of social authorities? What are the influences of the school and the family ? Why is the library an unknown and non accepted place ?

Since I can not answer here all these questions, let's concentrate on some facts.

The time for reading

Traditional surveys tend to show the relationship between reader and reading as a unique, hic et nunc one. On the contrary, attitudes vary through life : coming out of school, stepping into professional life, building a family are periods of redefinition (even if unconscious) of reading practices. The latters are not immutable. They change, not only in terms of intensity, but even more in terms of choices, centres of interest and gain from reading. Stepping into professional life often means for the 'casual' reader giving up reading : this is the time of moving away from the family network and the circle of friends which constituted rare circumstances for exchanging and discussing books (Nicole Roubine).

Breaks inpersonal or professional life are often followed by a redefinition of the cultural horizon of references which can lead to the rejection or, on the contrary, to the resumption of reading practices. But this notion of evolution should be considered cautiously : it is rather related to cultural horizons and values than to a matter of having time, estimated in terms of leisure time. A widespread idea is that the casual reader does not read because he has no time. Reality is more complicated. Time, one could say, does not exist. There are social times, managed differently according to cultural environment and individual values.

Reading time for the casual reader is residual : one reads when one has nothing else to do. " The activity of reading appears as being the 'negative' of the structured and planned time-table of professional life. Reading books does not follow any rules, any policy of time organisation. The casual and circumstancial aspect of casual reading seems to marginalise the book in relation to the reader's active time, his 'positive' time for socialising." (Joelle Bahloul).

How casual readers perceive reading

For many casual readers, the perception of their reading is opposed to the social perception of the book. The first is often devaluted, while the second carries a symbolic value. Those readers associate an intense valorization of a book-world which is not their own with a certain form of denial of their own reading. At first, casual readers answer to the survey : "I don't read" or "At home, we would not read, we had no time"; before recalling the title of a book which, paradoxically, has left a strong emotional and aesthetical experience on the person :"Of course, I have read "La porteuse de pain" (french success of popular litterature in the early century). "Who has not read this book ? I could hardly bear to read it till the end : I was so sad, I cried on the book and could not go on reading it" says, for instance, a retired female Rousseauist reader from the Belle Epoque.

In this confrontation between the value which the reader give to his choice of books and what he knows as being a 'legitimate' aesthetical choice, the casual reader tends to deny his reading a culture acknowledgement : "I don't read, only small novels", "It is not I who judges good writers and gives them a good review, I am not an expert...Some people are paid to classify writers, me, I am only a small person" said a 54 year old taylor."You see,

what I read are small and cheap novels which don't interest anybody, they are not extraordinary novels from great writers...Sometimes, I read Harlequin Books (equivalent of Barbara Cartland), easy-readers, sentimental stories, and I don't think they had any intellectual influence on me(...) They are little banal stories, always the same but well written (...) When I read the book of a great author, I feel it brings me more" said a house-wife.
Casual readers perceive their own reading in a very paradoxal and ambiguous way. While they devalorise their choices and their centre of interest, they tend to over-estimate the 'real' reading, which can only be others', the "intellectuals", the "professionals". Reading is not what they do ("that's not what I call reading"), but the exercise done by those who practice reading regularly, intensively and culturally.

World of the text and world of the reader

Practices of reading don't only develop according to external and social circumstances . They have their own rhythm : this then is the relation between the reader and the text he is reading which will determine reactions of interest, affinity, or, on the contrary, abandon and reject. Any reading, whatever its subject is and what ever the talent of the writer is, is a confrontation and a negociation between "world of the text" and "world of the reader". Would the characteristic of the casual reader, and even more the non-reader, be the difficulty or the impossibility to experience "an escape from the world" which any reading represents ?

Particularly claryfying and interesting are the reading habits of prisonners or retired people, as analysed by a French researcher (Michel Peroni). A prisonner, who would not read during his childhood ("In the past, I had no contact what so ever with reading") started to read in prison because, heavily sentenced, he "had to do something in order to cope" and because "at that time, he had no other choice than reading". His experience would have contented many librarians : from "bad books" to "good books", from "hold-up stories" to Stendhal or Canetti, from Guy des Cars to Sartres or Dostoievski.

But the prospect of leaving gaol annulates all this reading, shows the uselessness of what is considered as an escape in the text, or the description of a world not too strange for the reader : "It 's a type of book I could not read any more because it is useless... For me, today, a great deal of books I have read , I read them for nothing. Like Sartres, Camus, de Beauvoir...they are the most famous, so I remember them, but I have read some other ones ; those guys are no use to me. They have described a world for which I have no interest. With a guy like Sartres, in his own world, it is impossible for him to think for me here all alone. I prefer to make my own philosophy in this case, and like that, at least I can cope with life. When I think about some books I have read, I feel an emptiness, as if I have wasted my time".

It is the reading habit itself which can, in the confrontation between the world of the text and the needs and values of the world of the reader, lead to the abandonment and rejection of the reading of some boooks and even reading itself.

II. BEHAVIOUR OF USERS OF PUBLIC LIBRARIES

The increased use of libraries by the general public has, over recent years, disrupted the modality of reading spaces.

The constitution and treatment of documentation cannot, even less than before, go without a knowledge of the targetted public and areflection on

the existing public and its diversity.

The diversity of the appropriation of space by the public

Any space offering public reading is a theatre for negociation between the propositions of use established by the conceiver and its effective use by readers. It is the confrontation between ideal users , implicitely foreseen by the professional, and effective users, more diverse and unexpected. One of the functions of sociology is to update and analyse effective uses which sometimes contradict foreseen uses. The ideal place to study those gaps is a free access library, and even more a consultation library, since all practices and all effective uses take place in the same space, whithin any given library.

Let's take some examples of this negociation, represented by a confrontation between this project and such persons as this project is intended. The public information library of the Centre Pompidou offers its users a language laboratory where it is possible to learn without cost more than 95 different languages. The success was immediate and important : more than 600 persons come every day to learn japanese, maori or creole. But the demand focuses on 4 or 5 languages - English, French, German, and Spanish which are not only the most widely spoken but also the most demanded on the market. How could the B.P.I. satisfy such a legitimate demand from users and keep its cultural role of proposing and promoting the use of a more important and more varied number of languages ? The same question applies to the record library where most seats were occupied by rock lovers, whilst this place offers more than 1300 records of all kind of music. It is not only a matter of matching demand with offer because this apparent opposition meets a more subtle opposition; it is the one between 'legitimate' cultures and 'illegitimate' ones; between 'cultivated' practices and 'popular' ones on which sociologists like Richard Hoggart or Pierre Bourdieu have, for years, drawn attention. Public libraries are theatres of tension between diverse practices and people who mix. But both parties can also represent contradictory expectations.

Free access

In situations of free access, intermediaries are optional : the resort to catalogue use or asking questions of the librarian does not determine the use of space. Library's users still favour having access to the shelves : in fact, 60% of B.P.I.'s users have recourse to free access exclusively, prefering in that way the tactic of ferreting than the classical and organised way; 19,5% ask information of the librarian; whilst 23,5% use computarized catalogues, the on-line catalogue GEAC or the CD-ROM LISE.

Many recent studies have tried to analyse the processes of users, who, very often, prefer going directly to the shelves than to the catalogues. "I prefer to see the books themselves, going to the shelf is quicker", "When you can have a look at books, you don't waste time", "I go directly to the book I want. I usually know more or less where they stand", "I always go to the same spot, where I am sure I will find what I want", "I look at titles, at random". All those statements show that, to our hierarchy and our classifications, users prefer to trust their own sense of orientation, prefer to find something "by luck" without too many difficulties rather than "getting lost" or feeling bound to go through a global understanding of the whole library's soace : "it is your job, not mine". Very often, it is the title of a book which acts as an indicator of what is on that same shelf. The spatial movement along the shelves of the library is a real journey through knowledge.

The use of on-line catalogues

The BPI offers its users two kind of access to catalogues : the GEAC on-line system and the CD-ROM LISE. The analysis of ways of questioning used by 150 readers and interviews with fifteen of them has shown, in depth, the logic of their use of the library and has stressed the gap between the objectives of the computerized system's conceiver and the user's way of doing. (study done by Joelle Le Marec).

If the screen-keyboard (as an object) attracts automatically many visitors, it does not mean that the screen is immediately identified; many people confuse it with other services showing the same material aspect of a screen-keyboard : the French Minitel, or an informative sign-post on Centre Pompidou, or a larger documentation service.

The use of a terminal can be encouraged by other motivations than the documentary research : some use it, not to find a document in the library, but to "take-up computers". What is then wanted is to learn as many operations as possible and to discover the functionning of a key-board : it is a matter of "teaming the machine". What is at stake here is felt as very important and people expect a lot from computers.

Two main logics of terminals have been analysed : an imaginary dialogue between the person and the system, and the spatial mode of a consultative journey. The user who responds to a logic of dialogue thinks he is in a conversational situation with an intelligent machine that will answer and be able to adapt to all his demands. He thinks he is in a situation of mutual understanding. He therefore trusts the capacity of the machine to "understand", not the word, but the meaning of the word. Hence his anger when the machine, not communicating, doesn't listen. The GEAC system, for instance, always displays an answer to a demand since, even if none of the indexed words answers to the user's demand, GEAC displays the list of subjects, titles and authors in an alphabetical order. The answer is the same, whether the demand has been satisfied or not, meaning that the machine does not listen to the demand, leaving the user very helpless. This helplessness is even worse because nothing can make him understand he has made an error or what type of error it was. In that case, error doesn't teach you but is on the contrary sanctionned by failure.

The user who follows a logical process expresses himself in terms of journey, or travel. He gets the impression of coming into a labyrinth out of which he is not sure to come out. He sets off though he fears getting lost. This feeling is linked to a phenomenon of discontinuity which is a characteristic of computerized systems : on the screen, "each page erases the preceding one, offers different possible choices then erases all those choices. It is then difficult for the user to store information - to memorise it - since it disappears as he carries on. The user struggles aginst the loss of control and tries to impede this "constant break of continuity".

In computerised systems where each page erases the previous one, "the user must formulate his demand without knowing what's offered". Successive and hesitant adaptations which the user is forced to go through are sometimes a source of misunderstandings : if the user wants to get to the point, he has to make it explicit, to prioritise and correct his mistakes.

Practices of on-line catalogues'users are situated at the crossing of, onone hand, technical rules, and on the other hand, social representations of a computer world. We are henceforth trying to analyse the conditions and what is at stake in this crossing. Which begs the question, what are their consequences on the appropriation of the written work itself ?

III. PRECEPTS ON READING HELD BY INSTITUTIONS IN THE 20TH CENTURY

Sociologists and historians of reading try to analyse public readers, their ways of reading, their use of the text and their appropriation of books.

However, few studies have tried to analyse the precepts of institutions which have tried, in their way, to promote reading and to dictate its use. A study which will be published this autumn has tried to analyse more particularly prescriptive statements of three institutions, being respectively the catholic church, the republican school and public libraries in the 20th century. Their respective precepts deal with distinct levels of reading : they state which books are good, which books should be read and which ones are dangerous. They state how to read : much or not much, quickly or slowly, giving advices for a better memorization and a better reflection on the text. They state how reading should be guided by the teacher, the professor, the librarian, the priest. They state which are the purposes and functions of reading : prayer, meditation, instruction, information, entertainment, pleasure, work, cultural knowledge or communication. They try to place limits, to make alliances and to denounce competition. Such statements are complex, in agreement or in contradiction, and I can only list here some of them. Constant common points are : the will to spread the practice of reading, to increase the number of readers; and also the fear of how those same readers - especially the "new" ones - will use their readings.

The reaction of these "reading-prescriptors" was at first one of surprise when they saw the increasing number of "average readers" : "We read a lot nowadays. In the countryside, nearly everybody reads the paper. In the city, everybody reads the newspaper; public transport is crammed with readers" comments, for instance, a newsletter of the French clergy in 1913.

But next to the satisfaction of observing the increasing number of "new readers", appeared, around the end of the 19th and beginning of the 20th century, the fear to see them use this freshly acquired knowledge for suspicious purposes and in an uncontrollable way. The catholic church, for example, dread the reading by women of novels which "fire imagination and pervert intelligency", or the reading by the common people of the press which is a "colossal force at the service of the Evil". Teachers under the third republic dread very much to see bad readings take over the good ones : "Nowadays, everybody reads the paper, it has become the only intellectual product for thousands of sensible people who want to inform themselves. And, whenthey have read pages full of trivial events, when they have meditated on the thousand ways to betray their country, to steal , to murder, or to prostitute themselves, their day is finished, they think they have done their civic duty : they are "up-to-date", they are "informed".(Instructions of the Director of education for Pas-de-Calais, 1886).

The danger can then come from too much reading. The statement that makes out of the quick and attentive reader an expert/professional reader has not yet been made. At that time, many people thought, on the contrary, that "quick reading don't leave any impression, whereas moderate and attentive reading stay in the mind...One needs to be steadfast and coherent, to concentrate on one book at a time, to finish already-started reading and not to read several book in the same time" (M. Marotti, Coference on educational methods, handbook for teachers and graduating teachers, 1881). There is a preference for a limited corpus instead of the search for a multiplicity of reading subjects or a diversity of competence.

When the press and novels started being successful and commonplace, speeches against them became untenable, and, carried by other social movements

and motivated by other fears, transferred their opposition on others written works : from the 30ies to the 50ies, new genres in literature, american comics, cartoons, detective novels are the books which are condemned.

The editorial of a children magazine warns : "This poison, from which we have to keep all French children away, is presented to them with colourful drawings in illustrated amoral magazines with smutty pictures and offensive words. Those magazines proliferate everywhere and modify the soul of French children, who, too trusty and often unaware of the danger, open widely their hart and their mind to their harmful influence."

For a long time, the catholic church and the republican school will see, each in their own way, in the promotion of good books, the only means to resist "bad books" : "It is with good books that we will moralize the people ; it will be with the help of books that we will reach the people's mind before reaching the people's will. Victory will always be on the side of reason and good sense."

"Good books take us away from the cabaret, they teach us our duty of son, brother, husband and father; they show us our obligations towards people and the homeland. Good books raise our soul towards Him from whom it has originated, they give us a good hart, generous feelings. Good books render people their freedom and rescue them from slavery, spreading everywhere the benefits of civilisation, love of literature, of science and art." (Michel Rougier, Du développement de l'instruction primaire par les bibliothèques scolares, 1881).

In the years 1910, librarians, starting to constitute a professional body, will have a different approach. The library has to educate indeed, but also entertain, inform, tackle current issues and even provide any kind of information that one would need." (Bulletin de l'assciation des bibliothécaires français, 1907). Here, for sure, originates the concept of "useful" reading, often inspired, one says, by the american example and which try to make from the library a familiar place where "one can go as easily for a book as going to the market for meet or vegetables." (Charles Sustrac, Bulletin de l'AFB, 1907).

There are different approaches/concepts of the purpose of reading, the functions of books and the consequences of instruction. But there are no statements on the absence of readers, on the recession of reading. This rhetoric was born just after the war, when it seemed that written work was not only threatened by its body-double (the bad book or the bad press) but by new medium which are radically opposed to it, or by new leisures which question not only the good use of reading but its whole background of reference : "There are not only cheap an bad publications any more, but sport shows, cinema, radio, television. Those ennemies of culture through the book, which is the only personal one, the only real one, are fighting against it, not only openly, but viciously : they encroach on its field." (Cahiers de la Lecture Publique, 1954). Jean Guehenno, a French writer,proposes to "analyse what one calls the crisis of reading".

Crisis of reading. The expression is born and is still fashionable nowadays. In the 50ies and 60ies, the main concepts of this thematic are being established and, in the same time, the question of free access for all to reading and of its democratisation becomes commonplace. We have inherited those concepts.

Those are the studies done recently in France. There are other ones. Different or similar, completing or contradicting each other, they prove how reading, although being a very studied issue, is still mysterious. None of them use a simple process of evaluation which would aim at measuring services, judging know-how and quantify experiences. All these studies are on the side

of users, the logics of whom are never a simple mirror of the logics proposed by librarians. All those attitudes are illogic only if related to our logic of specialist. In order to understand them, let's not stop observing and listening to them.

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IFLA GENERAL CONFERENCE AND COUNCIL MEETING PARIS 1989

Division: EDUCATION AND RESEARCH

Section/RT: CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

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INTERNATIONAL SEMINAR ON CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

MARTIN, CSSR, OCTOBER 1988 : A REPORT

BY

Horst H O G H, Martin, CSSR

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SUMMARY

H. Hogh: Organization, Goals and Results of IFLA seminar on the Problems of CPE in the CSSR

Stimulation for organizing international IFLA Seminar on CPE was the 125th anniversary of Matica slovenská (Slovak National Library and the 10th anniversary of the Centre of Continuing Professional Education of Librarians in the SSR. The seminar was organized in cooperation with RT-CPE IFLA in October 1988. Of 40 participants 16 were from Canada, G.B.R., G.D.R., Hungary, Poland, U.K. and U.S.A.

Contribution informs on cooperation of RT-CPE with The Slovak National Library in preparation of the seminar, namely in determining its goals, discussion topics, selection of papers and participants.

29 papers were presented (13 from CSSR) dealing with 7 suggested topics. The contribution analyses the papers from the viewpoint of intentions and aims of the seminar. The procedings of the seminar (in English) will be published till the beginning of 55-th IFLA Congress.

0. Introduction

It is still more important to think of questions of CPE-L as a system. We must discuss questions of CPE goals, content specifying in close relation to the content in the system of school education. Practice shows that CPE cannot be comprehended as an isolated phenomenon that starts with coming schoolleavers to libraries, but education programmes of CPE must issue from the content of the school system and from the demands of library activities. Apart from different organization of CPE in various countries mutual knowledge is advisable.

These were the main starting points the IFLA Continuing Professional Education Round Table and the Education Centre of the Slovak National Library took into account deciding to organize an international seminar on CPE in Martin in October 1988 / on the occassion of two anniversaries of Slovak librarianship - 125 years since the Matica slovenská the Slovak National Library founding and the ten--year anniversary of the Continuing Education Centre for Slovak librarians at the Matica slovenská.

1. What goals the organizers of the seminar assigned

For home specialists it was needful to evaluate 10-year activities of the Continuing Education Centre for Slovak librarians at the Matica slovenská and

to think of the direction of its further functioning.[1] Foreign participants could become familiar with the system of continuing professional education in the Slovak Socialist Republik in more detail and both sides could exchange their experience and improve their knowledge through papers, discussions and informal talks. Considering an international character of the seminar home organizers could not solve all the problems that are necessary to be solved. The content of the seminar was the result of a compromise so that we agreed on seven issues to which home and foreign specialistes worked out papers. These issues are concerned:

1. Where the responsibilities of the library school end and the duties of the Continuing Professional Education (CPE) begin;
2. Future goals for Continuing Professional Education in the profession in relation to the development of librarianship;
3. What are specific items of importance for individual educational courses from the content point of view, such as
   - -- CPE in automation of library - information services;
   - -- CPE in preservation and conservation;
   - -- CPE in bibliographic services;
   - -- CPE in state and international libraries relative to cooperation and acquisition;

-- CPE in work with children readers;

-- CPE with belle-lettres and technical literature;

4. Specific didactic questions in selected CPE areas;
5. Direct and indirect management of CPE;
6. The possibilities of higher efficiency of CPE through the unity of its content with didactic aids;
7. Organization of CPE for the future.

To supplement the above mentioned notice we state that at present we are also discussing the problems of securing education centres with technical equipment that has not formed far of the education centre in our country so far, training of external lecturers including evaluation of their abilities, questions of the education of unprofessional librarians in numerous village libraries, increasing of CPE of their worhers in connection with supporting legislative efficiency of the disposal with compulsory CPE in the Slovak Socialist Republic, closer connection of research and CPE, editorial securing of CPE, ways how to verify knowledge of continuing education courses participants in connection with improving education courses effectiveness.

Informal contacts as well as official meetings and deliberations of the head representatives of IFLA with managing workers of the Czechoslovak librarianship (at the level of the Ministry as well as that of the Directorate of the Matica slovenská)

were important part of the international seminar. Such meetings contribute to improving the prestige of librarianship in the organizer's country, owing to financial as well as organizational conditions for its activities are improving. And finally, international meetings contribute to mutual understanding, friendship among nations in spirit of new trends we witnessed recently.

International meetings, unfortunately, require still rather lengthy preparations for existing problems in the field of visas, complication in converting foreign currencies, complicated and long-term administrative arranging.

Aside from these political-administrative questions certain time is required for finding a suitable date for an international meeting, for the choice of participants and speakers.

The IFLA conference 1988 in Australia certainly played its role in planning further journey to non Europeans interested. Despite of this we consider the participation of five non European participants (USA, Canada) out of a total of 16 foreign participants to be a success.

By mutual agreement between IFLA CPE RT and the Continuing Education Centre at the Matica slovenská we asked those who wanted to take part in the seminar at the costs of the organizers to

work out and give a talk on one of the appointed topics or to take part actively in preparations and the course of the seminar. The organizers came up to expactations because many participants of the seminar were ready to take part in discussing some other questions with Czechoslovak librarians (e.g. profesor J.R. Fang/USA took part in discussing the problems of conservation and preservation of prints, professor P. Kaegbein/FRG discussed the problems of historical libraries and books research, dr. H.P. Geh-IFLA President engaged in conversations with managing workers of the Slovak Ministry of Culture, the Directorate of the Matica slovenská in Martin and the State Library of the Czech Socialist Republic in Prague. Also a first-rate Hungarian delegation of university teachers of librarianship discussed with Czechoslovak colleaugues.

All the registered papers of foreign participants were accessible ahead to the working group consisting of professor Kaeigbein, B. Miller and other members who appreciated them from the point of view of the seminar main goals.

The papers of the majority of foreign participants were accessible ahead (some of them just in the form of an abstract). This principle must be insisted on also in the future because time is gained for preparing questions. Home participant were represented by the heads of the chairs of two insti-

tutes for library science and scientific information from Prague and Bratislava, other teachers of the secondary library school, representatives of research libraries of the Slovak Socialist Republic, directors of regional libraries responsible for education in four counties of the Slovak Socialist Republic, directors of district libraries, editors of two Slovak specialized periodicals, the head of the Education Centre at the State Library of the Czech Socialist Republic in Prague, chosen internal and external lecturers who actively realized an education programme and the management of the Slovak National Library.

2. **Course of the Seminar**

The whole program took a course according to previously agreed plan but inspite of this fact there were some imperfections. Imperfections can also occur in preparation. We want to point up some of them in order to help future organizers. For seven topic groups 16 papers vere agreed but the total number of papers was 23 (Hungarian and Polish colleagues did not send their papers in advance but presented them at the seminar). Following the contents of the papers in individual topic groups we appreciate thoughts of inaugural speeches of dr. H.P. Geh, prof. E.W. Stone (USA), Prof. J. Kábrt (ČSSR) that CPE will develop on the base of post-

graduate school education and they together will form a comprehensive system. Both parts are closely related as well as irreplacable. The responsibilities of the library schools do not end by student's leaving for practice, it means library. The school must impressed students with the necessity of life education and with the need to build up their own system of self-learning. The school has to evaluate its curricula and confront it with the needs of practice, carry out changes, play pivotal role, be in advance of practice and all the time develop theoretical and research activities.

According to B. Miller (Canada) the library schools must provide the students with the core body of knowledge and the students will specialize in the course of practice - in CPE courses.

In the second topic group were presented papers of E.W. Stone (USA) and H. Hogh (ČSSR) in which various learning strategies for adults (e.g. self-learning) were dealt with. There were offered other possibilities and goals of CPE (anticipatory function, education of harmonic human being and abilities of auto-regulation of self learning.

Papers in the third topic group were dedicated to some specific problems, e.g. conservation and preservation matters as o part of regular training at Simmons College, Boston, MA (J.R. Fang, USA) and continuing education demands in the area of

loans of belles-lettres (Š. Kolivoško, ČSSR). The next group was dedicated to didactic questions of CPE. M. Königová (Charles University, Prague) gave a report based on her own teaching experience; M. Pálvölgyi (Szombathely, Hungary) presented a model of training which can be used for basic training as well as for CPE. G. Toth, from the same institution, in his contribution reported on the continuing education courses for school librarians. The fifth topic group was devoted to questions of management for continuing education institutions. Ian M. Johnson (Aberyswyth, Wales) presented in his paper successfull experiences and examples from Great Britain. "Newcastle experience of developing continuing education" was the title of the paper presented by E. Blackie whose characteristic was individual motivation for other CPE courses. This topic was also discussed by M. Frátričová (ČSSR). The topic of the sixth group was greater efficiency of CPE courses and it was interpreted by M. Kent Mayfield (Medical Library Association, Chicago). We can only agree with his results in which he derived four strategies for CPE courses: self-directed learning, synergogy, competency-referenced learning system and transfer-of-training. The same topic was discussed by A. Čárska (ČSSR).

The last topic group concerned questions of organizational structures of CPE courses in various

countries. C. Ruby (Sacramento, USA) reffered to the example of Nicaragua, H. Hogh to that of ČSSR and M. Brykczynski and J. Lewicki to Poland.

3. **Results (positivities - weak points)**

The seminar as a whole took two and half days. Other 2 1/2 days were devoted to the sessions of RT CPE.

Time schedule for the presentations of papers and disscussions could not be kept up because of following reasons:

- it was supposed that lecturers will read their papers in English or native language (for these simultaneous interpreters were available). In fact, a lot of time was wasted by translations from Polish and German to Slovak and from it to English. For this case organizers had to get interpreters for Polish and German language
- not all participants kept up determined time 30 minutes for each paper (especially Czechoslovak participants)
- discussions to some topics (questions of didactics, efficiency of education) were longer than it was supposed
- Czechoslovak participants did not keep up time schedule and the chairman usually did not interrupt them
- the number of presentations was too large. It

was difficult to keep up breaks for coffee and lunch so the participants did not have enough time for informal discussions (the framework program helped to bridge this gape)

- papers prepared in advance (and partly distributed) were sent to participants ahead. Some of the participants relied on possibility of copying their papers at the place of the seminar. It did not work well - there was not enough time to acquint with the paper and the technical equipment did not work without problems, too
- some presentations (expecially Czechoslovak ones) did not offer further references to the literature. This might be caused by the lack of international experience. It will be improved at the publication of papers in the proceedings of the seminar.

Positivities

- contact and exchange of thoughts between theoreticians and practitioners of continuing education
- publication of papers in the proceedings of the seminar for members RT CPE
- recommendations that is necessary to follow in individual countries
- framework programm that gave the foreign participants insight into cultural specialities of Slovakia.

Czechoslovak participants accepted (besides official recommendation) their own conclusions. They agree with all official recommendation and (in the future) they hope to take part in many similar meetings in greater number (especially if the meetings are held in the countries close to ČSSR).

Notes

[1] CPE for Slovak librarians has been realized since the fifties but a specialized workplace for conceptional content and organizational management was founded in 1978.

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Section/RT: Library Theory and Research

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LIBRARY AND INFORMATION RESEARCH IN YUGOSLAVIA

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National and University Library, Zagreb, Yugoslavia

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Dora Sečić, Dubravka Stančin-Rošić
National and University Library, Zagreb, Yugoslavia

LIBRARY AND INFORMATION RESEARCH IN YUGOSLAVIA

Introduction

Yugoslavia is a multi-ethnic and multilingual community which is with regard to economics still divided into a more developed northern part where the older South-Slavic universities with longer library tradition are situated (Ljubljana, Zagreb, Belgrade) and the less developed southern part which was longer under Turkish rule and became really a part of Europe only at the end of 19th or the first decades of this century. The Adriatic coast was through centuries influenced by Italian culture and by seafaring and trade it was open to the whole world.
In pre-war Yugoslavia only the three mentioned capital centres had university and other major research libraries and accordingly were seats of professional library associations.

After 1945 each republic got a national library; in the capitals of Bosnia and Hercegovina, Montenegro and Macedonia new universities were established and very soon plans for library infrastructure in general were elaborated. Afterwards the two autonomous provinces - Vojvodina and Kosovo followed. The new federal constitution of the country initiated quicker development of the underdeveloped regions. Due to this fact a lot of schooled professionals of all kinds were needed. New schools and libraries of all kinds had to be organized.

In the new Yugoslavia the existing professional librarians founded library associations and started training programmes for beginners and other less educated library workers all over the country. In 1949 the Union of Library Associations of Yugoslavia was founded. The Union became a member of IFLA in 1950.

Today all Yugoslav republics contribute to the professional library scene and are according to their potentials involved in library research. It must even be stressed that in some new university surroundings remarkable innovative achievements have been accomplished. Encounter of different traditions has sometimes shown positive results and enriched highly our cognizance.

It is natural that in the first decade after World War II Yugoslav libraries had almost no prerequisites for research work available. Highly qualified librarians with academic education and professional experience were scarce, library schools did not exist yet. The only form of professional training were sporadic courses and seminars and regular preparatory training for obligatory professional exams. The first undergraduate and postgraduate studies were organized in the 1960s. Postgraduate library and information courses were organized with the aim to enable graduates to gain scientific level. The organized research projects we encounter today are to a great part the consequence of these efforts.

Through the whole after-war period IFLA has had strong impact on the Yugoslav profession. In 1954 the 20th IFLA General

Conference was held in Zagreb. That was a great honour and gain for Yugoslav librarianship. Generally, participation of Yugoslav librarians in sections of IFLA, although not intensive, has strongly influenced the development of library theory and practice in the country, particularly the choice of themes for professional meetings and conferences (1). The 35th IFLA Annual Conference in Copenhagen, for example, was devoted to library education and library science and two years later, in 1971, the Union of Library Associations of Yugoslavia devoted its biennial conference in Bled to professional education. However, research had to wait for more than a decade to be regarded as one of the priority themes for a federal conference of Yugoslav librarians. It was for the first time included as the main theme of a separate session in 1986.

Professional and scientific library journals in Yugoslavia

Except organizing professional meetings and courses for library workers, Yugoslav library associations started publishing professional journals and other professional publications in the 1950s. They were aware of the rapid development in the library sector and convinced that in addition to acquiring certain skills library professionals ought to study the complex structure of the library theory and the background of their professional tasks. For these reasons manifold means of professional communication were needed and journals were a natural complement to conferences, organized

by all associations of the constituent republics and their Union.

Yugoslav journals struggled with economic and organizational problems from the beginning, so that even today most of them do not appear regularly. Nevertheless, they give a good insight into the state of the art of Yugoslav libraries and the profession. However, the true chronicles of Yugoslav librarianship in general are the proceedings of the biennial conferences of the Union of Yugoslav Library Associations. That is why for this survey we had to consult these publications infallibly.

Today eight journals published by Yugoslav library associations appear more or less regularly. The total annual number of issues of these eight titles is 7,270, which is insufficient, as it is estimated that Yugoslavia has almost 18,000 active professional library workers (2). In addition to these periodicals two primary and two secondary journals dealing with library, information and computer sciences are published by information institutions. The periodicity of Yugoslav library journals does not meet requirements either. We can even argue that they are not proper journals because they appear in too great time intervals. The highest frequency is three times a year, some journals are published twice a year and two titles are annuals. According to Ulrich's International Periodicals' Directory (1987/88) only three of the ten primary journals are referred by major foreign secondary periodicals: Bibliotekar, published in Belgrade and Vjesnik bibliotekara Hrvatske and Informatologia Yugoslavica, both published in Zagreb.

It must be mentioned that Yugoslav librarians publish their papers in other journals as well. Additionally to quite seldom published papers in foreign journals Yugoslav authors in library and information science publish in periodicals belonging to other professions or in such dealing with general questions of science, education or culture. This is particularly the case with topics on school libraries.

Undergraduate and postgraduate studies in library and information science

The Yugoslav school system on all levels has gone through very turbulent decades. The consequence of school reforms caused by the political system of selfgovernment which intended to orientate schooling by early specialization more than before towards the working environment resulted in implementation of quite courageous experiments and inharmoniously changing curricula. For this reason libraries have difficulties to get employees with good general education. However, long prepared regular studies in library and information science, new in the university environment, were fortunately not submitted to the stresses of the reform. On the opposite, their curricula have rather been advanced during the last years.

It is interesting that in Yugoslavia postgraduate studies were really launched earlier than undergraduate university courses. The first institution to be established was the postgraduate Centre for Study of Librarianship, Documentation and Information Science in the University of Zagreb. The founders

were not information professionals but university teachers in science and technology, interested in information science. Librarians were only included as teachers for certain subjects. The inconsistency of some parts of the syllabus provoked problems because the majority of enrolled candidates were library workers. They realized that the priority needs of Yugoslav libraries were not taken into consideration. The misunderstandings between library professionals and representatives of information specialists handicapped these studies in a way, but nevertheless the Centre benefited Yugoslav librarianship a lot. It was open to graduates from all faculties and to all parts of Yugoslavia.

The greatest merit of these postgraduate courses is that they opened new horizons to the Yugoslav library profession. The fact that natural scientists coped with problems of the library and information infrastructure was very positive, because their solutions were often more modern and practical, as they were not burdened with tradition. But, unfortunately, they did not fully comprehend that librarians possess expertise very essential for the functioning of libraries and library systems. Except that, natural scientists were not acquainted with the fact that library science as a social discipline uses mainly research methods appropriate to its character which are often different from those used in natural sciences. As social scientists of all specialties and those active in the humanities had in general no access to public funds for research work, librarians could at that time not influence the development of research potentials in the field of library and information science. At the beginning, research

funds were available to scientists and engineers only, who were only interested in specialized information services.

The Centre organized courses in different information disciplines: librarianship, documentation, museology, archivistics and informatics. That was really revolutionary at that time. The programme stressed also preparation in scientific research and the importance of computer science. As the students came from all Yugoslav republics, research programmes all over the country were stimulated. From the beginning to 1988 181 candidates completed their studies at the Centre and received a master's degree in librarianship. Parallel the same number of candidates gained a degree in information sciences (3).

However, librarians were convinced that postgraduate library education ought to be the logical continuation of regular undergraduate studies in librarianship. That is why they made efforts to realize the latter. The actual forerunner ofundergraduate university library schooling were studies of librarianship taught as a separate group of subjects at teacher training colleges in several places, first since 1961 in Sarajevo, then 1964 in Ljubljana, 1967 in Rijeka and afterwards in some other places (4). The efforts to organize proper university undergraduate studies met with success a decade later.

Nowadays, regular undergraduate education in library science exists in Sarajevo, Ljubljana, Zagreb, Belgrade and Novi Sad.

The studies in individual universities differ significantly. Some are linked to a certain department of the faculty of philosophy, so that only students of that specialization can study library science. One example of this orientation is the Belgrade Chair for Librarianship where library science is linked to philology, the other the University of Sarajevo, where only students of literature can study librarianship. The other option is the interdisciplinary approach, as for example in Zagreb, where students of all faculties can study library and information science as a second subject. That ensures possibilities for interdisciplinary research.

Yugoslav university chairs for librarianship are likely to become a significant factor in development of library and information research. Relation between research and education at the undergraduate level has already been articulated as a topic of interest of university teachers active at the chairs (5). For this reason they will certainly include courses on methodology appropriate to library research to a greater extent. Except that, the chairs of librarianship cooperate actively and organize joint meetings. To this day three such meetings have taken place: 1981 in Sarajevo, 1986 in Zagreb and 1987 in Belgrade. The first two meetings were devoted to teaching and curriculum questions and the third, in 1987, dealt with the questions of library research. Here we want to remark that we share the view expressed in that circle that interuniversity cooperation in library projects might offer new possibilities because a number of the country's leading professionals could in this way unite in joint ventures.

In addition to the mentioned postgraduate courses in Zagreb, the Chair for Librarianship of the University in Sarajevo organized in the last few years master courses as well.

Doctor's degrees in library science in Yugoslavia have been realized in the universities of Sarajevo and Belgrade whereas most doctors of other specializations in information sciences have been promoted in Zagreb so far. Since the first doctor's degree was conferred in 1985, it is normal that to this day there are very few doctors of library science in the country. Themes of the existing theses in library science mostly deal with library and book history and a few are dedicated to subject-oriented library and information systems. This is due to the fact that library studies in Belgrade and Sarajevo are connected with the fields of language and literature and the candidates were promoted in those universities. Currently a number of candidates is working on doctoral theses, so that in the near future the research potentials in library and information science will certainly benefit from these efforts.

Research work and research projects

As a paper published in the 1950s indicates (6) professional knowledge was present at that time in the rows of Yugoslav librarians, but in relation to library research they shared the dilemmas which were present in the profession in other European countries. Published scientific papers were exclusively resul's of personal engagement and hard work in the free time. Information on professional work in progress

was exchanged through meetings and conferences of professional societies.

The 1960s opened new, wider possibilities for research by organizing university library education, but team work and organized research projects were still unknown.

In the late 1960s and the 1970s IFLA and UNESCO gave great impetus to the development of the profession in Yugoslavia. Parallel scientific societies, as a part of another international movement, were involved in the programme UNISIST. Librarians were predominantly active in the UBC programme, but they studied UNESCO's NATIS and later on the GIP as well. Library cooperation, networks and information systems became the central matter of interest. But although such global projects require a lot of organized research, actual research programmes were initiated in library circles not before the 1980s. Namely the resolution of the 10th Biennial Conference of the Union of Library Associations of Yugoslavia suggested in 1984 the Community of Yugoslav National Libraries, responsible for development of the Yugoslav national library and information system, to launch a federal research project devoted to this topic.

All research projects in Yugoslavia depend very much on financing by the communities of science of the constituent republics and autonomous provinces. Although the medium-term plan 1981-85 brought about the first smaller projects in library science, they were scarcely separately financed because library and information science were at that time not

recognized as an autonomous scientific field in Yugoslav universities. That occurred for instance in Zagreb, the oldest seat of the postgraduate studies, not earlier than in 1984. For this reason library projects were fully financed by the libraries themselves.

The current medium term is actually the first period when library projects are financed from funds assigned officially to research projects. However, the federal project "Library and Information System of Yugoslavia" has officially still not got financial support from federal resources. All library projects are consequently the matter of the constituent republics in question.

A very important fact is that according to the new Yugoslav research acts national libraries in general are acknowledged the right to propose research programmes to be financed from common resources for scientific projects. That means that they actually partly got the status of scientific institutes. They may now also include external associate researchers in their projects. The result of these new circumstances is that we witness more proposed projects and such in progress.

The main intention of the library institutions and the profession is to use research on one side as a means for solving problems existing in current library activities and, on the other, to create a foundation for advancement and introduction of new activities which will correspond to general development of information needs of the Yugoslav society.

Generally we can say that today the library and information profession in Yugoslavia is involved in two great projects: the first concerning the development of the national library and information system (which is financed only in parts by individual constituent republics) and the federally financed "System of Scientific and Technological Information of Yugoslavia", which depends mostly on scientific libraries and is for this reason relevant to the library profession as well. Within this project each republic is active on several specialized tasks.

Librarians have little experience in research methodology so far. Since most research ventures are pioneer work, we can state that Yugoslav library science is really at the beginnings. So for example the Chair for Librarianship of the Faculty of Philosophy in Zagreb has started preparing a terminological library dictionary. It should serve "as an aid in determining reliable and unambiguous meanings of terms and defining clearly and delimiting concepts of librarianship" (7). This important work will surely last quite long but it is an essential prerequisite for future scientific endeavours on a higher level. Similar projects are or will be in progress in other places, too.

Since 1988 Yugoslav projects in progress have been referred in CRLIS. Six projects have been included so far, but that is not all which is done. Surely, more reports will follow soon.

The level of professional work is on the rise. The biennial federal library conferences and other professional meetings and journals give evidence of this fact. However, there is

still a lot to be done before we shall be able to report of really professionally organized and managed research projects in library and information science in Yugoslavia.

Conclusion

This presentation touches briefly on the background and conditions of development of library and information research in Yugoslavia.

Library and information theory and research are topics which interest the Yugoslav profession more and more. As in the past the country's libraries had almost no prerequisites for organized research at their disposal, library research was exclusively the result of personal engagement of some distinguished individuals. Through the whole period since 1945 the Union of library associations of Yugoslavia and library associations of the constituent republics and autonomous provinces have been the moving force of the development of the profession. By publishing journals and organizing conferences they ensured permanent professional communication and education.

Since the 1960s the regular undergraduate and postgraduate studies and since the 1980s the regulated financing of library research are the reasons that Yugoslavia has lately started the first organized library and information projects. At present they are in their initial phase.

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